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Emma O'Brien
Technological University Dublin

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Emma O'Brien, B.Sc., M.Sc., MBA

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

School of Marketing,
College of Business,
Technological University Dublin

Supervisor: Prof. Thomas M. Cooney

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ABSTRACT

It is broadly agreed that entrepreneurship plays a crucial role in economic and societal development. Supporting entrepreneurship has become a global phenomenon, and governments and policy makers have paid increasing attention to it. Yet, despite such policy developments, the OCED (2019) has identified that several communities (including women, youth, seniors, unemployed and immigrants) remain disadvantaged and under-represented in entrepreneurial activity. Inclusive entrepreneurship policies recognise the significant economic and social contribution these communities could make if greater encouragement and appropriate support was offered. This study investigates the supportive role that Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) can play in strengthening social inclusion through inclusive entrepreneurship. In a novel contribution, the study broadens the perspective of entrepreneurship to enterprising behaviour which has a wider meaning and broader relevance beyond economic matters.

The research was conducted through a single, in-depth revelatory case study of an Irish HEI that is newly constituted and developing an inner-city campus with a focus on community benefit. Rich qualitative data were collected through 15 semi-structured interviews and participant observation of a HEI community engagement initiative with disadvantaged communities. Thematic analysis methods were used in the processes of generating codes, categories and themes leading to the findings of this study.

The study identified the relevance of the enterprising behaviour concept for disadvantaged communities as a potential bridge to entrepreneurial activity. Moreover, the study identified an expanded and more inclusive role for HEIs in supporting entrepreneurial potential within disadvantaged communities. As an original contribution to knowledge, the findings were synthesised with recognised constructs from the fields of (1) HEI Community Engagement, (2) Entrepreneurial Education and (3) Disadvantaged Communities in the presentation of an evidence-based framework to support HEIs in the development of inclusive, tailored entrepreneurial education initiatives. The framework suggests several guidelines for HEIs in this regard. In addition to several policy recommendations, this study lays the foundations for future research on the expanded role of HEIs within entrepreneurial ecosystems.

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis which I now submit for examination for the award of **Doctor of Philosophy** (PhD), is entirely my own work and has not been taken from the work of others, save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

This thesis was prepared according to the regulations for graduate study by research of the Technological University Dublin and has not been submitted in whole or in part for another award in any other third level institution.

The work reported on in this thesis conforms to the principles and requirements of the Technological University Dublin's guidelines for ethics in research.

Technological University Dublin has permission to keep, lend or copy this thesis in whole or in part, on condition that any such use of the material of the thesis be duly acknowledged.

Emma O'Brien ***30/09/20***

Signature _____ Date _____

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This thesis is a culmination of a process of research and a learning journey that has spanned several years. It could be described as an entrepreneurial journey – full of opportunity, uncertainty, frustration and great joy. At times the journey has been a test of endurance and resilience, yet, personally transformative. As such, I would like to acknowledge the people who have played their part in supporting me throughout this endeavour.

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This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my Mam, Pauline O'Brien, an inspirational lady with a passion for education and community.

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1.1 Introduction

A recent series of reports have highlighted that several social target groups including: women, youth, immigrant and ethnic minority groups, unemployed, seniors and people with a disability are disadvantaged and under-represented in entrepreneurship and refers to them as 'Missing Entrepreneurs' (OECD, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2019). These reports highlight the significant economic and social contribution these cohorts could make if greater encouragement and support was offered. This thesis explores how HEIs could engage in such supports through community engagement.

1.2 Study Rationale

Entrepreneurship is frequently identified as playing a critical role in economic and societal development which has led to the development of a wide range of public policies and initiatives to support entrepreneurial activity (Lundstrom and Stevenson, 2006; Ahmad and Hoffman, 2008). Consequently, there has been significant growth in entrepreneurial education in HEIs (Fayolle and Kyro, 2008), from a handful of courses in the 1970s to thousands around the globe today (Kuratko, 2014). Traditionally, entrepreneurial education in HEIs supported the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour with a strong business or new venture creation focus. However, contemporary entrepreneurial education has become attentive to engendering entrepreneurial competencies within individuals (Bacigalupo et al., 2016; Gibb, 1993). This approach aims to support the learning of enterprising behaviour for personal, societal and economic impact (Blenker et al., 2012).

Recent decades have borne witness to a closer alignment between higher education and society with many HEIs embracing their 'third mission' of community

engagement (Hazelkorn, 2016a). The broader societal contribution of higher education is now re-emerging as a policy priority in many countries, due to increasing societal challenges worldwide (e.g. European Commission, 2017). Globally, a number of policies and initiatives exist to support HEIs' broader societal contributions. The topic has become increasingly prominent in the policies and programmes of transnational institutions (the EU, UN and OECD), as well as at national and university level (Farnell, 2020). HEI community engagement is a multi-faceted and multidimensional concept that may be applied to a vast range of activities and initiatives. One aspect of this is to be found at the emerging research nexus between HEI community engagement and entrepreneurship (Kingma, 2011).

There is greater recognition of the need for tailored support for disadvantaged communities in terms of entrepreneurial activity (OECD, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2019). In recent times, some HEIs have been addressing this need through the development of tailored initiatives that supports the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour in disadvantaged communities (Cooney, 2009; Cooney, 2012b; Kenny and Rossiter, 2018; Haynie and Shaheen, 2011, Shaheen, 2011; Shaheen, 2016). The development of inclusive tailored entrepreneurial education initiatives demonstrates an expanded role for higher education in entrepreneurial ecosystems (O'Brien et al, 2019). However, initiatives tailored towards learning entrepreneurial behaviour with a focus on start-up or new venture creation, may not be suitable for all disadvantaged communities. In fact, a recent report suggested that disadvantaged communities need additional support in developing enterprising behaviour as a precursor to entrepreneurial behaviour (OECD, 2016). Yet, the academic literature provides no evidence of how HEIs might support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. This study sets out to

address this gap in knowledge and investigate this matter from the perspective of multiple stakeholders. Practice in the field is already moving in this direction (Downs and Lambros, 2014; Berglund, 2007) but there is limited guidance available for HEIs who may wish to progress this agenda. The overarching contribution of this study is the development of an evidence-based framework outlining the key factors for consideration by HEIs in the development of tailored entrepreneurial education and training for disadvantaged communities.

1.3 Research Question and Research Approach

In addressing the gap in academic knowledge, this research study seeks to answer the following research question:

> ***How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the learning of Enterprising Behaviour in Disadvantaged Communities?***

Answering the research question required exploration of the literature across three research fields: (1) HEI Community Engagement; (2) Entrepreneurial Education (Enterprising Behaviour); and (3) Disadvantaged Communities. To date, the interrelationship between these three fields of study in the context of inclusive, tailored entrepreneurial education has been under-explored in the literature. Despite the preponderance of theoretical models and frameworks within the fields of HEI Community engagement (Holland, 2001; Benneworth, 2013); Entrepreneurial Education (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Maritz and Brown, 2013) and Disadvantaged Communities (Shaheen 2011; 2016; Cooney and Licciardi, 2019), none of these frameworks on their own offer

sufficient guidance on how HEIs can support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities.

Figure 1.1 - The Interconnecting Study Research Fields

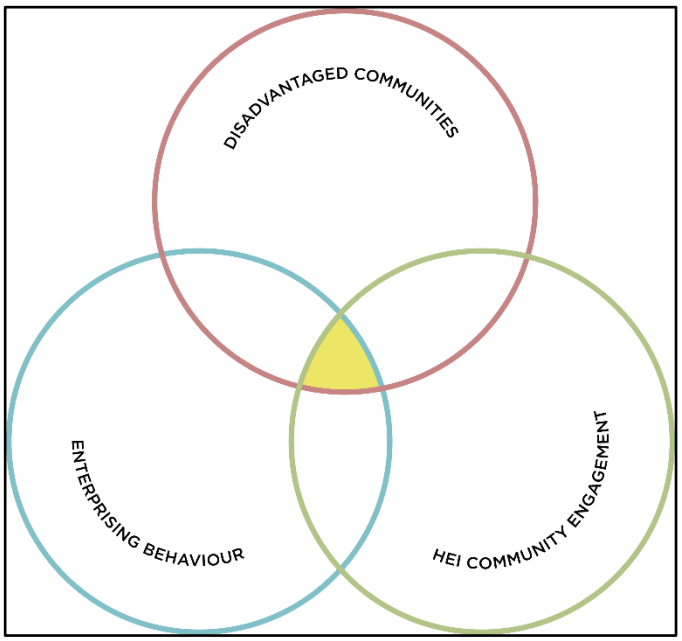


Figure 1.1 highlights the integrative nature of this study. Moving beyond disciplinary silos, for the first time, this study integrates known constructs and theoretical insight from across the three fields of study to investigate the key considerations for HEIs in the development of inclusive, tailored entrepreneurial education initiatives. As such this study identifies the "*causal mechanisms"* or "*causal pathways*" by which HEI community enterprising behaviour programmes may be achieved (Ylikoski, 2018, p.3). Taking a critical realist ontological stance, philosopher Bhaskar (1997) argued that the search for generative mechanisms which underlie observable social phenomena, should be the defining quest of social science research.

A critical realist philosophy (Bhaskar, 1979; Little, 1991; Sayer, 2010) underpins this study. The centrality of identifying mechanisms or pathways to explain how or why things might happen means that critical realists put theory first. Through a process of

synthesised coherence (Locke and Golden-Biddle, 1997) the conceptual framework presented at the end of the literature review (Chapter Four) draws connection between the literature and research domains not previously drawn together to provide insight in this emerging research area. This approach fits within the critical realist philosophy which seeks to avoid being trapped within silos of single disciplinary views and may adopt multi-disciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary perspectives to understand complex social phenomena (Haigh et al, 2019).

The conceptual framework and its constructs represented a hypothesis of the crucial factors which influence the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives and served as a departure point for primary inquiry. Critical realism embraces a relativist epistemology which may be facilitated through interpretivist approaches (Miller and Tsang, 2010; Krauss, 2005). In answering the research question, detailed insight is required from multiple stakeholders. The choice of a case study research methodology located within a qualitative research paradigm was deemed the most suitable vehicle for exploring the research question through primary inquiry. Case study as a qualitatively orientated research design is well documented across the three fields of this research study (Yazan 2015; Harland, 2014; Blenker et al., 2014). In line with Yin (2014), this study follows a revelatory single case study design of an Irish HEI with a long history of community engagement. This approach is deemed useful in situations where the state of the art is emergent rather than established (as in the case of this study).

The main data collection technique was through qualitative semi-structured interviews which were conducted with fifteen expert level participants including: academia, policy makers, educators, community members and representatives of

disadvantaged communities. The interview process enabled the generation of rich description which provided a deep understanding of the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. Empirical data gathered from the interview process was enhanced through the researcher's participant observation of a HEI community engagement initiative with disadvantaged communities over a fifteen-month period. Policy documents recommended by participants were also utilised to triangulate empirical data collection. Thematic analysis methods (Braun and Clarke, 2006) were used in the processes of generating codes, categories and themes leading to the findings of this study. In an abductive approach (Dubois and Gadde, 2002) the case was then utilised to develop an evidence-based framework with key considerations and inferences that may be extrapolated to inform wider contexts.

1.4 Research Aim and Thesis structure

The aim of this study is to develop an evidence-based framework premised on fine grained empirical insight from multiple stakeholders outlining the critical factors which influence the development of inclusive, tailored entrepreneurial education initiatives. Each chapter in this thesis contributes to reaching this overarching aim and answering the primary research question. The thesis is structured as seven chapters to provide the reader with a cohesive and rigorous presentation of the research study:

Chapter One has outlined the background and rationale for this study leading to the design of the study research questions. A brief overview of the research approach is encapsulated within this chapter.

Chapter Two is the first literature review chapter. It explains how the subject of community engagement in higher education has evolved and become increasingly prominent in recent decades. The chapter explores the terminology debates in the engagement of higher education with society and defines what is understood by community engagement in this study. The chapter explores community engagement activities that evolve in practice and reflects on the obstacles and challenges to community engagement in the current context of higher education. The chapter culminates with theoretical consideration of the constructs related to the engagement of HEIs with disadvantaged communities.

Chapter Three investigates the evolution of entrepreneurship scholarship leading to an exploration of state-of-the-art theories and definitions of entrepreneurship. The chapter sets out definitional boundaries of the key terms of 'entrepreneurial behaviour' and 'enterprising behaviour' with a view to ensuring clarity and consistency of the terms. Subsequently this chapter critically reviews the entrepreneurial education literature exploring factors that influence the learning of enterprising behaviour. Theories, frameworks and approaches from the field are reviewed and their relevance and potential for inclusion within the development of community entrepreneurial education initiatives are assessed. In closing, this chapter identifies the lack of theoretical and empirical investigation in the research nexus between enterprising behaviour and disadvantaged communities.

Chapter Four is the contextual chapter that aims to identify the issue under investigation in context. The chapter begins with a comprehensive review and critique

of the literature on disadvantaged communities and entrepreneurial activity. The second part of this chapter focuses on the role of higher education in inclusive entrepreneurship exploring key theoretical and empirical developments within the field (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011; Shaheen, 2016; Kingma, 2014; Cooney, 2009). The chapter culminates by integrating relevant theoretical constructs from across the three research fields in the presentation of a conceptual framework for the development of inclusive, tailored entrepreneurial education initiatives. Through the identification of research gaps in the extant literature, the chapter outlines the framework's contribution to conceptual knowledge in inclusive entrepreneurship (O'Brien et al, 2019).

Chapter Five is the methodology chapter. It begins by examining and justifying the study's philosophical stance. Guided by contemporary methodological theory, this chapter provides the rationale for the qualitative case study design (Yin, 2014) and method of enquiry of this study. Data collection and analysis methods are explored and the chosen approach to answer the research question is explained. The relevance of ethics and researcher background are outlined and the research rigour and trustworthiness are highlighted.

Chapter Six is the empirical chapter that presents the analysis, interpretation and theorisation of the case study. The chapter begins with a detailed mapping of the phases of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006) employed in this study. The findings are presented through discussion of the key themes that were constructed from the data set. The perspectives of multiple stakeholders are represented through

rich description of their experience and also in comparison with the extant literature. Through abductive inference this leads to the presentation of an evidence-based framework outlining the key factors for consideration by HEIs in the development of inclusive tailored entrepreneurial education .

Finally, **Chapter Seven** concludes the research study by reflecting on the study's contribution to theoretical, methodological, practical and policy knowledge within the relevant fields. Study limitations are discussed, and the chapter concludes with consideration for future research endeavours in this emerging research area.

In addition to the framework developed in this study, many figures, illustrations and tables are presented throughout the seven chapters of this thesis to illuminate the research study for the reader.

1.5 Glossary of Terms

Given the domain-specificity and recency of some of the constructs encountered throughout this research study, the reader's comprehension may be enhanced by an early familiarity with them. Thus, a Glossary of Terms has been developed and included in this introduction to aid the reader. These terms are used interchangeably in the extant literature and are defined here with a view to ensuring clarity and consistency of terminology utilised within this study.

- *Disadvantaged Communities:* They are communities that experience additional and distinctive challenges in participating in entrepreneurial activity and are

under-represented in entrepreneurial ecosystems. This includes women, youth, seniors, ethnic minorities and immigrants, unemployed and disabled people.

- *Enterprising Behaviour.* It refers to innovative and creative qualities in an individual with a positive and proactive attitude to change. It is underpinned by a broader meaning of entrepreneurship and can be applied in multiple contexts beyond an economic focus. Thus, in this study enterprising behaviour is followed by the term broad.

- *Entrepreneurial Behaviour:* It refers similarly to the innovative and creative qualities within an individual, with the general exception, that they are applied to start and grow a new organisation, frequently with a commercial aspect. It is underpinned by a narrow conceptualisation of entrepreneurship, that of new venture creation and economic activity. Thus, in this study entrepreneurial behaviour is followed by the term narrow.

- *Entrepreneurial Ecosystem:* It refers to the dynamic and mutually reinforcing environment between a community of interdependent actors that supports entrepreneurship.

- *Enterprise Education:* An approach to teaching and learning that supports the development of enterprising behaviour and the acquisition and development of personal skills, abilities and attributes that can be utilised in different contexts and throughout the life course.

- *Entrepreneurship Education:* An approach to teaching and learning whereby the primary focus is on starting, growing and managing a business.

- *Entrepreneurial Education:* A unifying term which incorporates both enterprise and entrepreneurship education often portrayed as a progression approach – beginning with enterprising behaviour and leading to entrepreneurial behaviour as outcomes.

- *Higher Education Institutions (HEIs):* It refers to any kind of tertiary (3rd level) institution that has a substantive knowledge creation and/or knowledge transmission function. Often used interchangeably with the term University.

- *HEI Community Engagement:* It refers to the collaboration between HEIs and communities for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity.

- *Inclusive Entrepreneurship:* It refers to entrepreneurship that contributes to social inclusion to give all people an equal opportunity to participate in entrepreneurial activity.

- *Learning About:* It refers to learning 'about' entrepreneurship. Teaching 'about' entrepreneurship involves theoretically orientated courses which increase awareness of entrepreneurship by exploring its history and theory.

- *Learning For:* It refers to learning 'for' entrepreneurship. Teaching 'for' entrepreneurship means an occupationally orientated approached aimed at

encouraging students to consider entrepreneurship in their future through business plan development and associated skills.

- *Learning Through:* It refers to learning 'through' entrepreneurship. Teaching 'through' entrepreneurship means a process based and often experiential approach where students go through an actual entrepreneurial learning process.

Chapter One has provided an overview and rationale for the research presented in this thesis. The following chapter is the first literature review chapter, which comprehensively reviews the large and growing body of literature in the field of higher education community engagement.

Chapter 2. HEI Community Engagement

2.1 Introduction

Since the establishment of the first university in Bologna in 1088 universities have served society well. Universities have acted as the cradle of knowledge, a fount of innovation and creativity supporting people to fulfil their potential and fostering societal growth and development. Often perceived as 'ivory towers' producing knowledge in seclusion from society, recent decades have borne witness to a closer alignment between higher education and society (Delanty, 2001;Hazelkorn, 2016a). This alignment occurs for a myriad of reasons, including the move from capital intensity to knowledge intensity as the basis for successful economies, global economic instability, rising higher education costs and reduced public spending on social programmes. There are increasing demands on modern HEIs to engage more with various communities in the course of their activities (McIlrath et al., 2012).

Developing a deep understanding of HEI community engagement is the focus of this chapter. The chapter begins by exploring the concept of community engagement which is increasingly employed as a strategy to facilitate change and societal development in several fields. Progressing to higher education, the chapter then maps the evolution of HEI community engagement and explores various definitions of the concept. HEI community engagement is often referred to as 'third mission' activity in addition to universities' first mission of teaching and research. Whilst third mission activities have often been focused on economic impact and engagement with industry, there is growing evidence that interactions between society and HEIs has widened beyond an economic focus (Benneworth et al., 2009). This study is concerned with the broader engagement of HEIs in society, in particular, with disadvantaged communities. The chapter explores various theoretical contributions on community engagement within higher education and

culminates with a framework drawn from the literature on key considerations in the engagement of HEIs with disadvantaged communities.

2.2 Community and Community Engagement

The meaning of the word 'community' is derived from the Latin root 'communitas' meaning 'common' or 'shared' and the definition typically incorporates a group element or component (Southerton, 2002). Anthropological studies have demonstrated that community activity characterises all human societies and the ability to co-ordinate activities in a group may have provided an evolutionary advantage to modern humans (Homo sapiens) over the Neanderthal ancestor (Homo Neanderthalisis) in the European Ice age nearly 30,000 years ago (Dunbar, 1996; Gamble, 1999). Upon reviewing the interdisciplinary literature on community studies, it is evident that community can be conceptualised or defined in a number of ways. Hillery's much cited review of community identified a common feature to be the regular, mostly co-operative interaction among a set of people over time (Hillery, 1955). In a more contemporary definition of community, Etzioni (1996, p. 23) defined the term with reference to two characteristics: *"a web of affect-laden relationships among a group of people"* and '*a measure of commitment to a shared set of values, norms and meanings, and a shared history and identity*." Moore (2001) developed this further suggesting that communities consist of members that connect with each other through a shared identity, a common language, established roles, shared intellectual, moral and social values, long-term membership status and established social boundaries. Somerville (2016) contended that community arises wherever people have a common attachment, either directly to one another or indirectly via an attachment that they share to a place or set of practices.

However, Hawtin and Percy-Smith (2007) noted that there are characteristics other than location which are linked to a sense of community. These included: age; gender; ethnicity; a shared problem (e.g. medical condition); a shared working environment; belonging to a particular faith; or membership of a voluntary or political organisation. Whilst definitions and conceptualisations of community are almost always positive, communities are not always perfect and homogenous. Communities may contain underlying tensions and conflicts and may be constituted by exclusion as much as inclusion (Gilchrist, 2009; Hawtin and Percy-Smith, 2007). McCloskey et al. (2013, p. 10) noted that "*communities are not homogenous entities, they are made up of diverse groups with different histories, social structures, value systems and cultural understandings of the world."* Such various definitions and perspectives on the term 'community' enable reflection on establishing who and what constitutes a community.

Skinner et al. (2008) suggested that the terms disadvantage, deprivation and social exclusion are terms that are used interchangeably to describe communities that are suffering from acute social problems including: low socio-economic status; high rates of chronic disease; high levels of migration and multiculturalism. It is argued in the literature that social exclusion as a practice dates as long as communities have been present (Kummitha, 2015). Marlier and Atkinson (2010) defined social exclusion as *"the involuntary exclusion of individuals and groups from political, economic and social processes, preventing their full participation in the society in which they live*". In this way, social exclusion is identified as a multidimensional construct including economic, sociological and political dimensions. The topic of disadvantaged communities is further explored and defined in Chapter Four.

In recent decades, governments and civil society have recognised the importance of connections and relationships within communities and have prioritised community engagement as a mechanism for societal development (Gilchrist, 2009). Community engagement as a strategy to facilitate change has been increasingly employed in initiatives in health, education, business, public governance and other social programmes (Barnes et al., 2014). At the supranational level, organisations such as the OECD and the United Nations have espoused the benefits of community engagement for good governance and achieving equitable societal benefits (e.g. United Nations, 2003). In some countries, participatory approaches have been linked to an awareness of the complexity of many societal problems and the need to share responsibility for many so called 'wicked issues'. More recently, the UN Global Compact has built a global platform facilitating multiple actors including businesses, civil society, labour and academia to collaborate with the goal of addressing the sustainable development goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2015). The United Nations have argued that increasing community-based engagement is critical to achieving the sustainable development goals for international development (United Nations, 2019).

Contemporary practice in community engagement has been captured in the literature across various domains. Kania and Kramer introduced the 'collective impact' model highlighting the partnership approaches of governments, industry, civil society, labour, educators and investors in addressing societal challenges and problems (Kania and Kramer, 2011). This evolving trend of community engagement involving multiple actors is perhaps best defined by McCloskey et al. (2013, p xv) when they said that "*community engagement is the process of working collaboratively with and through groups of people affiliated by geographic proximity, special interest or similar situations*

to address issues affecting the wellbeing of those people". This broad definition (not discipline specific) is suggestive of a collaborative approach to community engagement which has been identified as a transformational and empowering form of engagement to bring about change. This review now narrows to focus specifically on the type of community engagement investigated in this study, that of university community engagement. As noted in Chapter One, this study adopts a broad definition of "*universities as any kind of higher education institutions (tertiary education or 3rd level education) that has a substantive knowledge creation and/or knowledge transmission function*" (Boyer, 1990, p.44). The definition of a university as a Higher Education Institution (HEI) is utilised in this study. Thus, the term HEI community engagement is predominantly utilised throughout this work.

2.3 The Evolution of HEI Community Engagement

The evolution of HEI community engagement has been influenced by the diverse and changing context of higher education in society. A brief historical overview of HEI community engagement is now explored, followed by an analysis of some macro trends and policy developments which have impacted the HEI community engagement agenda.

2.3.1 A Historical Perspective on HEI Community Engagement

HEIs are fundamentally societal institutions and this has been evident throughout history. The first European HEI was established in Bologna in 1088 and down through the age's universities have been inextricably intertwined with, responsive and beneficial to society (Benneworth et al., 2018). The foundations of most of the early HEIs had an

immediate element of service to the community in their agreed mission and purpose (Watson, 2008). As noted by Biggar (2010, p.77):

> *Right from their medieval beginnings, (universities) have served private purposes and practical public purposes as well as the sheer 'amor scientiae' ('knowledge for knowledge's sake)…popes and bishops needed educated pastors and they and kings needed educated administrators and lawyers capable of developing and embedding national systems.*

Throughout history, societal development and society's changing need for knowledge has resulted in the adaption of higher education to meet societal demands and engage with communities (Benneworth, 2015).

Table 2.1 - Societal Evolution and HEIs

Social change	Sponsor need	HEI Exemplar
Agricultural revolution	Reproducing religious administrators	Bologna (11th Century)
Emergence of nobility	Educating loyal administrators	Paris (12th Century)
Urbanisation	Educated administrative elite to manage trade	Catholic University of Leuven (15th Century)
Sustaining national communities	Validating the state by imagining the nation	Lund University (17th Century)
Creating a technical elite	Creating technical and administrative elite	Humboldt University (19th Century)
Promoting progress	Creating economically useful knowledge	Land-Grant Universities (19th-20th Century, USA)
Supporting democracy	Creating elites for non-traditional communities	Dutch Catholic Universities (20th Century)
Creating mass democratic societies	Educating Habermasian deliberative citizens	UK 'Plate Glass' universities of the Robbins era.

Source: Benneworth (2015)

The evolution of higher education and its response to societal need is captured in Table 2.1. From a European perspective, early HEIs were specialist communities such as the late medieval colleges for poor scholars in Oxford and Cambridge, and for urban

professionals in Bologna and Paris (Watson, 2007; 2008). As higher education migrated from Europe to the United States, the mission of early colonial colleges was to create cadres of clergymen, teachers, lawyers and doctors to serve their local communities (this was the origins of many now elite private institutions, e.g. Harvard College established in 1636) (Hoy and Johnson, 2013; Watson, 2007). Over time many HEIs in Europe became strongly influenced by Wilhelm von Humboldt and Cardinal John Henry Newman. Newman thought knowledge should be pursued "*for its own sake*", and Humboldt likewise saw education as the principal mandate of a HEI (Hazelkorn, 2016). Humboldt's linking of teaching with research in a search for impartial truth was the foundational philosophy for the development of the 'idealised HEI' model (Anderson, 2009). 'Community' in a geographical context or the concept of community engagement did not figure in this European 'modern research HEI' model (Schuetze, 2012).

Meanwhile in the US, the public mission of Higher Education continued to expand and develop (Hoy and Johnson, 2013). The Land-Grant College Act of 1862 (Morrill Act) provided grants of land to states to finance the establishment of colleges specialising in agriculture and the mechanic arts. Most of the newly established HEIs in the Western United States and Canada had an explicit further mission, that of service to the community, prioritising research and teaching that would assist in the economic, social and cultural development of the 'community' where the HEI was located (Schuetze, 2012). Over time in the US, the land-grant HEIs moved away from their founding philosophies and were gradually replaced by the influence of the Humboldtian model (Albritton, 2009). Following World War II, the US HEI system directed considerable attention to developing strong research and development infrastructure, especially in the area of science and technology. Relationships formed during World War II between

science faculties, government agencies and industry drove some HEIs deeper into the Humboldtian university model, whereby disciplinary rather than societal needs drove faculty and students into well-defined and increasingly bounded disciplinary units (Fitzgerald et al., 2016).

A confluence of factors (including the civil rights movement, the end of the Vietnam War and the Cold War) encouraged many US HEIs to return to their land-grant origins, with many HEIs recognising that higher education had drifted far from its public mission (Fitzgerald et al., 2016). This zeitgeist was best captured by Boyer (1996) in his seminal article calling for a "*scholarship of engagement".* Boyer's writing challenged higher education to renew its covenant with society and to embrace the problems of society in shared partnership with communities. In recent decades macro societal trends and policy developments have continued to influence the HEI community engagement agenda as captured in the following section.

2.3.2 Macro Trends and Policy Development

There has been increasing policy pressure in the global north since the 1980s for HEIs to contribute more to society. This has largely been framed in terms of the transformation towards a knowledge economy. The knowledge-based economy describes trends in advanced economies towards greater dependence on knowledge information and high skill levels (OECD, 2005). HEIs are critical suppliers to the knowledge economy where societal welfare is increasingly based on the capacity to generate, process, transform and exploit knowledge capital (Temple, 1998). The evolution of knowledge-based economies has also increased the demand for HEI community engagement. In the 1990s, several countries formalised these demands into a legal requirement making

societal contributions obligatory for HEIs. The fact that those legal frameworks (such as the Dutch 1992 Higher Education and Research Act) also required teaching and research to be delivered, led to this societal contribution role to be termed the 'Third' mission after teaching and research. The third mission could be understood as encompassing a wide range of activities ranging from HEIs pursuing competitive economic activities, through engagement with business and industry, to contributing to public discourse and cultural life (Benneworth et al., 2018).

New approaches emerged in the understanding of knowledge and knowledge production. Gibbons et al (1994) described the paradigm shift from traditional knowledge production (Mode 1) to more participatory and application focused approaches (Mode 2). The emergence of the 'Mode 2' approach to knowledge creation emphasised the necessity of interdisciplinarity, social accountability and of the practical application of research to solve 'real-world' problems (Nowotny, 2003). In 'Mode 1' knowledge building traditionally sat within the walls of HEIs. Universities were perceived as "*repositories of sacred knowledge"* and "*transmitters of knowledge devoted to discovery*" (Moxley, 2003, p 104). The 'Mode 2' approach identified that knowledge is produced in institutions of higher education, but also in diverse places and locations, in social movements, communities, businesses and local governments (Kövér and Franger, 2019).

More recently, societal 'grand challenges' such as climate change, human health, food and water security and sustainable societies have been reframed in the 'Mode 2' approach requiring co-ordinated and sustained effort from multiple stakeholders and interlocking knowledge and innovation systems (Graham, 1987; National Academy of Sciences, 2005; Lund Declaration, 2009; Europa, 2012). In this paradigm, new ideas are increasingly the result of interdisciplinary work focused on useful application, whereby

knowledge is co-produced with and through the community, regional and inter-regional and global partnerships and networks (Hazelkorn, 2016b). These new approaches to knowledge production have challenged the privilege of the 'ivory tower' (producing knowledge for its own sake) and demands the academy to engage with the wider community.

The massification of higher education from the 1960s onward has also intensified the duties faced by higher education to actively demonstrate their wider contribution to society beyond the immediate benefits to educated individuals (McMahon, 2009). HEI community engagement is gaining prominence as a policy priority on the higher education agenda in many countries, as well as at the EU level. This shift in priorities is a reflection of the increasing pressure on HEIs to demonstrate how they deliver public benefits (Jongbloed et al., 2018). The increased emphasis on wider community engagement in higher education can also be understood as a critical response to the predominance of HEI community engagement with an economic focus including: commercialisation of research; university-business cooperation; and labour market relevance of graduates. Addressing the need for broader societal engagement, the European Commission's Renewed Agenda for Higher Education (2017, p.7) emphasised that:

> *Higher education must play its part in facing up to Europe's social and democratic challenges and should engage by integrating local, regional and societal issues into curricula, involving the local community in teaching and research projects, providing adult learning and communicating and building links with local communities.*

Such policy developments may be considered a re-emergence of the community engagement agenda as observed earlier, since the philosophy and practice of HEI community engagement is historic and resonates with the foundations of many HEIs (McIlrath, 2014).

Concerns about the limitations of autonomy and decentralisation in other domains (such as banking and financial services, alongside recognition of the importance that education plays within the knowledge economy, has more recently propelled a shift to new forms of accountability and co-ordination (Jongbloed et al., 2018). New public management (also referred to as public value management) has become the norm across a wide range of public services, whereby governments are aiming to align the responsibilities of public institutions more directly to the needs of society (Dobbins et al., 2011). In many countries, governance reforms in higher education have also followed the New Public Management approach (NPM) whereby national authorities steer higher education performance. NPM links institutional funding to the achievement of set standards and objectives measured through audits, performance based funding, institutional compacts and other incentive arrangements, to drive change, efficiency and public benefit (Goddard et al., 2018).

Ireland operates a higher education performance framework since 2014 based upon recommendation by the National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (DES, 2011). The objective is to improve institutional performance through the development of a more formal process of establishing goals and associated metrics of performance (DES, 2018a). Civic and community engagement is captured in two of the six key system objectives. The Irish National Strategy for Higher Education 2030 (DES, 2011: p13) emphasised that:

> *Engagement with the wider community must become more firmly embedded in the mission of higher education institutions. Higher education institutions need to become more firmly embedded in the social and economic contexts of the communities they live in and serve. HEIs should be more engaged with the wider community and respond positively to the continuing professional development needs of the wider community and deliver appropriate modules and programmes in a flexible and responsive way.*

Through these policy developments the Irish government has focused on promoting greater societal and economic benefit through the alignment between HEIs and their communities and regions.

In summary, higher education's engagement with wider society has gained increasing significance in recent years. This re-emergence of the community engagement agenda resonates with the historical foundations of HEIs and has been influenced by macro trends and policy developments, including the emergence of knowledge-based economies and changes in knowledge production, the massification of higher education and the demands on societal institutions (including HEIs) to be more accountable.

2.4 Defining HEI Community Engagement

The increasing focus on the community engagement agenda in higher education has led to "*an international convergence of interest on issues about the purposes of universities and colleges and their role in wider society*" (Watson, 2007 p.1). Despite the policy drive for increasing engagement by higher education in their communities and regions, there is little consensus about the terminology and a plethora of interpretations exist in the literature (Giles, 2008; McIlrath, 2012). Furthermore, the concept of

‘community’ can have a variety of connotations within higher education, as noted by the South African Council on Higher Education (2010, p.2):

> *Community can, and does, mean anything from a university’s own staff and students and a community of practice to civic organisations, schools, townships, citizens at large and ‘the people’ in general*

Different kinds of HEIs will consequently practice different kinds of engagement, depending on their history and location, strategic position, research specialties, curricula offered, and the demands placed on the institution by community and other stakeholder groups (Giles 2008; Benneworth and Jongbloed, 2013).

HEI community engagement is a multi-faceted, multidimensional term that may be applied to a vast range of activities. The OECD-CERI think-tank report (OECD–CERI, 1982) was one of the first references to HEI community engagement in higher education discourse and it explored dimensions of community engagement with business, government, the third sector and society. It outlined engagement activity from ‘simple interactions’ in terms of teaching and research to more transactional activities on behalf of the community aligned with institutional status. Over time the practice and structures of HEI community engagement has continually evolved and the concept is often referred to as: service learning (McIlrath and MacLabhrainn, 2007); engaged scholarship (Boyer, 1996); community HEI partnerships (Hall, 2009; Hart et al., 2007); civic engagement (Fitzgerald et al., 2016); and of knowledge mobilisation and knowledge impact (Levesque, 2008). Butin (2014, p. 1) defined HEI Community engagement as “*an umbrella term for the philosophical orientations and pedagogical practices such as service learning, community-based research and civic engagement*”. The concept of

engagement can be utilised to describe activities in which HEIs connect with issues, problems or organisations outside of the campus (Hazelkorn and Ward, 2012).

HEI community Engagement is often referred to as the 'Third-Mission' of a HEI which describes a wide range of activities from economic, social and cultural, to continuing education, technology transfer and innovation, in addition to the first mission of teaching and the second mission of research (Hazelkorn, 2016a). More contemporary definitions of HEI community engagement commonly highlight collaboration, reciprocity, partnership and exchange or co-creation of knowledge within their definition. In this regard, The Carnegie Foundation's definition of HEI community engagement is widely used. The Carnegie Foundation (Brown University (n.d.)) stated that:

> *Community engagement describes the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity.*

This definition acknowledges that community engagement must be mutually beneficial, there must be genuine exchange of knowledge and resources, with a focus on partnership and reciprocity. The definition has application to a broad variety of community stakeholders and types of engagement.

More recently, for the first time, a definition of HEI community engagement emerged which acknowledged the challenges that some societal groups may experience in engaging with higher education. Benneworth et al. (2018, p.17) defined HEI community engagement as:

> *A process whereby HEIs engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way.*

In this definition, Benneworth et al. (2018) acknowledged that there are a set of societal groups for which engagement with HEIs may be challenging. More generally, the types of communities which do not habitually and typically engage with universities are those that are typically socially weaker, may be socially excluded, and do not have the resources to readily and easily engage with universities (Benneworth et al., 2018). This definition specifically describes engagement as engagement with community stakeholders and implicitly acknowledges the complexities of this type of engagement. As this research is particularly focused on HEI community engagement with disadvantaged communities the definition by Benneworth et al (2018) is deemed appropriate for this study. Thus, in this study:

> HEI community engagement is understood as a process whereby HEIs engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way

Mutually beneficial engagement is an underlying premise of this definition. Through mutual benefice, university knowledge helps societal partners to reach their goals and social partner knowledge enriches university knowledge processes and helps them reach their objectives.

2.5 Theorising HEI Community Engagement

Given the diversity of approaches and practices related to community engagement in higher education, it is rather difficult to summarise them all in one neat framework. As Laing and Maddison (2007) explained, engagement takes a particular form and is context-dependent, arising from individual institutional histories and locations, as well as an institution's view about their strategic position. In developing a deeper understanding of the concept, this section explores community engagement from a theoretical perspective through various dimensions of community engagement including: classifications; typologies and models; and subsequently explores components of HEI community engagement as drawn from the literature.

2.5.1 Dimensions of HEI Community Engagement

Owing to the diversity of HEI community engagement, the concept has been theorised in numerous ways.

Table 2.2 - A Typology of University Engagement Activity

Area of University Activity	Main areas of engagement activity
Engaged Research	R1 Collaborative research projects R2 Research projects involving co-creation R3 Research commissioned by hard -to-reach groups R4 Research on these groups then fed back
Knowledge Sharing	K1 Consultancy for hard-to-reach group as a client K2 Public funded knowledge exchange projects K3 Capacity building between hard-to-reach groups K4 Knowledge-sharing through student 'consultancy' K5 Promoting public dialogue & media
Service	S1 Making university assets and services open S2 Encouraging hard-to-reach groups to use assets S3 Making an intellectual contribution as 'expert' S4 Contributing to the civic life of the region
Teaching	T1 Teaching appropriate engagement practices T2 Practical education for citizenship T3 Public lectures and seminar series T4 CPD for hard-to-reach groups T5 Adult and lifelong learning

Source: Benneworth et al. (2009)

Benneworth et al. (2009) characterised HEI community engagement by type of engagement. This typology is presented in Table 2.2. The typology of engagement activity is drawn upon distinct elements of university activity, namely: research, teaching, knowledge exchange and service delivery. The typology is primarily concerned with engagement with harder-to-reach groups by universities.

Hart et al. (2009) characterised the dimensions of university engagement by both type of engagement (e.g. public access to facilities) and motivation (e.g. widening participation) in a briefing paper for The UK's National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (NCCPE). This framework identified several dimensions of public engagement including :

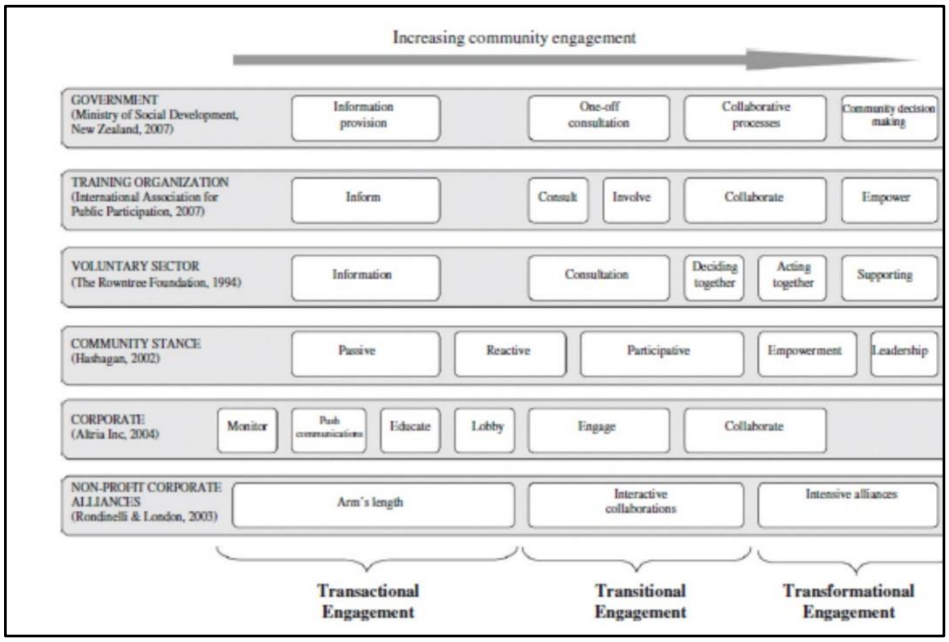
- public access to facilities;
- public access to knowledge;
- student engagement;
- faculty engagement;
- widening participation;
- encouraging economic regeneration and enterprise in social engagement;
- institutional relationship and partnership building

Hart et al. (2009) noted that the dimensions are not mutually exclusive but may overlap in meeting the objectives of the university and community.

HEI community engagement has also been classified by deepening engagement intensity. The 'continuum of community engagement' was utilised in the work of Bowen et al (2010). Engagement strategies within this model fall into three categories: 'transactional, transitional and transformational engagement' as illustrated in Figure 2.1. In the Bowen et al. model, in the first stage the community has a passive role and is a

receiver of information. In the second stage, there is a more active role for the community and there is two-way communication, but the community is still more of a recipient than an equal participant.

Figure 2.1 - Continuum of Community Engagement



Source: Bowen et al. (2010)

In the third stage, there is shared decision-making and the community has an equal position. Some authors (Dempsey, 2010; Sandmann and Kliewer, 2012; Stoecker et al., 2009) argued that it is inequalities and unbalanced power relations that differentiate between transactional and transformational engagement practices.

In a similar manner, Goddard (2009) sought to map different engagement activities and initiatives in terms of their level of complexity and intervention, followed by Hazelkorn and Ward (2012) and Hazelkorn (2016b), who attempted to capture the breadth and diversity of university engagement activity by ordering it in terms of levels or intensification of engagement, as shown in Table 2.3. As the levels of activity intensifies and deepens, engagement moves from transactional to transformational; for

example an academic providing a lecture is low in complexity and transactional in nature, offering a consulting service to the community is further along the spectrum and transitional, whereas an academic identifying research problems with a community and co-designing a study to address such problems is more transformative in nature (Hazelkorn and Ward, 2012).

Table 2.3 - Levels of Community Engagement and Complexity

		Terms	Definitions
Deepening Engagement Activity		Volunteerism	Pro-social behaviour that benefits the community and occurs within an organisational setting. This can include students working alongside the local community to salvage an old house or rebuild a community garden as part of a student group activity. Volunteerism is not always connected to academic learning.
		Outreach/Extension	'Extending' the resources of the university to the local community, usually as it relates to the needs of the workforce. This can include educational programmes for adult learners or workplace training for a local business. There may also be public communications or public events, such as lectures and workshops about university research or other activities; or vice versa from external stakeholders to the university community. Service provision, through museums or performance centres, falls within this area
		Service-Learning	Pedagogical and curricular engagement, where students and academic staff work collaboratively with community partners and link this work back to classroom learning, theory and reflection. This could include undertaking a study of obesity in the local community as part of the study of nutrition, reflecting on one's involvement and then sharing the results of the research with the community.
		Knowledge and technology transfer	Knowledge transfer (KT) refers to a very broad range of activities which support the transfer of tangible and intellectual property, expertise, learning and skills between academia and the non-academic community. It is usually associated with technology transfer that focuses on commercialisation of research and entrepreneurship, but it may also involve city regeneration and other capital projects.
		Knowledge exchange	Knowledge exchange (KE) is authentic two-way exchange of ideas and perspectives, as the building blocks of successful and sustainable collaboration. The 'end-user' is an active participant in helping to identify problems or needs, define the research or the solutions, and assess effectiveness and value.
		Holistic civic engagement	Engagement is a holistic, self-reinforcing and sustainable circle of activity, embedded across the entire institution, and acting as the horizontal and reciprocal glue linking teaching to research.

Source: Hazelkorn and Ward (2012)

More recently, Hazelkorn (2016a) proposed a framework for HEI community engagement which outlined three theoretical approaches to engagement: (1) the social justice model; (2) the economic development model; and (3) the public good model. The

social justice model is focused on students, service learning and community empowerment. If the community engagement agenda in a HEI is anchored in this perspective, the university would focus its engagement practice on community-based research, community-based learning, volunteering and knowledge exchange activities. The economic development model is focused on economic growth, technology transfer and innovation, and regional stakeholders. It tends to align engagement with the technology transfer office (TTO) or associated business liaison functions. A university that follows such an agenda might focus on entrepreneurial activities, including leadership, staffing and links with business. Finally, the public good model represented a deeper transformative agenda, which requires "*anchoring engagement in both mission and governance in a holistic way and coupling engagement with teaching and research*" (Brukardt et al., 2006). This model promotes a distributed or matrix organisational framework, with greater emphasis on creating an integrated approach between teaching and research to initiatives within the institutions. Examples of HEI community engagement under this model present a holistic approach, identifying collaboration, student access and success, community development and revitalisation, discovery and innovation in teaching and learning, as well as research that enhances knowledge resources that support advancement in higher education and cities where universities 'live and work'.

Hazelkorn (2016b) aligned the different theoretical perspectives on community engagement with indicative institutional models and characteristics of higher education (Table 2.4). As observed from Table 2.4, a social justice engagement approach is aligned with the model of the community-engaged university as defined by the Carnegie Foundation and discussed earlier in this chapter (Section 2.4). The economic development

approach is aligned with the concept of the entrepreneurial university. First coined by Etzkowitz (1983), the 'entrepreneurial university' was conceptualised around a third mission focusing on engagement through entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activities. Later, Etzowitz (2004, p.x) defined an entrepreneurial HEI as *"an economic actor able to contribute to local development through its 'third mission'"*.

Table 2.4 - Aligning Theoretical Frameworks with Institutional Models

Engagement approach	**Social Justice**	**Economic Development**	**Public Good**
Institutional Model	Community-engaged university	Entrepreneurial University	Civic University
Characteristics	Collaboration between an HEI and the larger community (local, regional, national) for mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity.	Strong focus on research and innovation, enterprise and business development, human capital development and enhancing social equality, all of which involve mobilising the resources of the university for the benefit of the development of the community, city or region.	Engagement embedded across the whole institution: (1) providing opportunities for individual learners, businesses, public institutions; (2) managed in a way that facilitates institution-wide engagement with the city and region of which it is part; (3) operates on a global scale but uses its location to form its identity.

Source: Hazelkorn (2016b)

The concept is often referred to as the 'triple helix model'(TH) and linked with 'national innovation systems' (Nelson, 1993) or 'regional innovation systems'(Cooke, 2001), whereby industry and government work together with academia in supporting regional or national economic growth through innovation and knowledge transfer (Yarime et al., 2012). Triple helix activities are principally promoted in an economic context (Trencher et al., 2013). Whilst this model has been deemed critical to economic development, it is now recognised that this model may not be the most effective approach for community engagement. This is because the focus on university-business cooperation may shift the

focus of research and knowledge production away from societal interests towards industry or individual interests (Ssebuwufu et al., 2012).

The public good engagement approach is aligned with the model of the civic university (Hazelkorn, 2016b). The concept of the 'civic university' is becoming an increasingly utilised model in trying to describe the mutually beneficial engagement between the community, region or wider world around the university (Goddard, 2009). Features of the civic university include: a holistic approach to engagement which is institution-wide; a strong sense of place; engagement is a central feature and overlaps equally with teaching and research; and there is a soft boundary between the university and the community enabling a response to societal needs. The model of the civic university also reflects the extension in understanding of the triple helix model of university, business and government to a quadruple helix that embraces civil society. The quadruple helix (QH) model contextualizes the triple helix by adding "*civil society as the fourth helix"* (Carayannis and Campbell, 2009, p.14). This model involves citizens and civil society acting as both consumers and co-producers of knowledge, working alongside higher education, business and government in a highly collaborative, iterative and co-ordinated way to provide useful knowledge and contribute to societal development (Carayannis and Rakhmatullin, 2014; Carayannis and Campbell, 2012). Many civic universities have a commitment to bettering the local and regional communities of which they are part and community engagement is the process by which this is achieved (Goddard et al., 2018).

2.5.2 HEI Community Engagement Components

There have been many attempts to introduce different kinds of accountability tools to address higher education's relationship with society and to stimulate HEIs to give greater priority to engaging with societal partners (Pinheiro and Benneworth, 2017). The growing demands on higher education to contribute to society has resulted in the development of multiple methodologies, frameworks and tools that evaluate, assess and benchmark HEI community engagement. According to Furco and Miller (2009) and LeClus (2011), the first tools aimed at assessing community engagement in higher education emerged in the United States in the mid-1990s, with several dozen further instruments being developed since then. These include tools developed by researchers and practitioners (Furco, 1999; Holland, 1997), by networks of universities (Campus Compact; Committee on Institutional Cooperation) and by HEIs at the local level (e.g. Community-Campus Partnerships for Health). All these initiatives inspired the development of a special classification of community-engaged universities in the USA, developed by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Driscoll, 2009). Other tools were also subsequently developed in Australia (by the Australian Universities Community Engagement), the United Kingdom (by the National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement) and in Ireland (by Campus Engage).

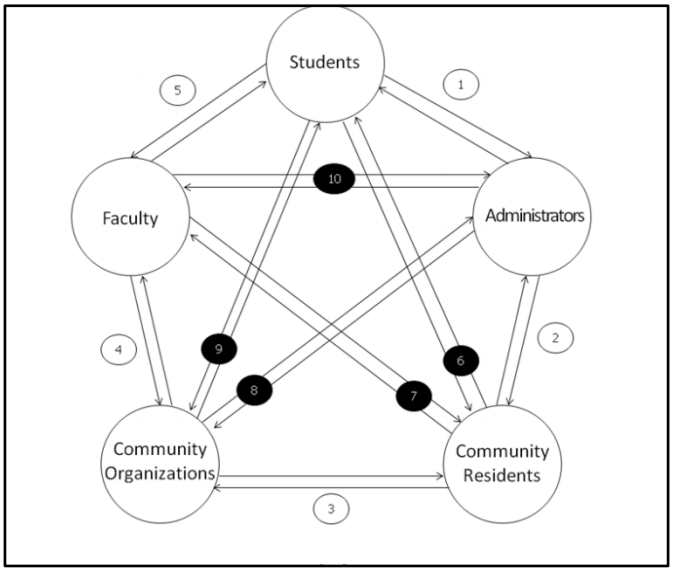
While the tools assist HEIs in understanding the levels of engagement existing on their campus, they are also helpful in recognising the components necessary for successful community engagement (Furco and Miller 2009). The matrix developed by Holland (1997), which became known as the 'Holland Matrix', was initially developed with a specific focus on service-learning (explored in Section 2.6), but has since been widely applied as an institutional planning tool for community engagement and has been

influential in the subsequent development of international tools. Holland (2001) identified several foundational components for institutionalising HEI community engagement. These foundational components include:

- A philosophy and mission that emphasises engagement;
- Genuine faculty involvement and support for engaged research or teaching, or both;
- A broad range of opportunities for students to access and involve themselves in high-quality engagement experiences;
- An institutional infrastructure that supports engagement practice; and
- Mutually beneficial, sustained partnership with community partners.

Holland's (2001) foundational components of HEI community engagement includes several stakeholders, including: university management; faculty; students and community partners. There are also other stakeholders, in the form of agencies, which shape the implementation of community engagement in higher education (Weerts and Sandmann, 2010). Another way of examining the stakeholders in HEI community engagement is through the SOFAR framework (Bringle et al., 2012). The SOFAR framework is represented in Figure 2.2. The acronym stands for "*Students, Organisations in the community, Faculty, Administrators on the campus, Residents in the community (or in some instances, clients, consumers or special interest populations)"* (Bringle et al., 2012). This framework depicts the various stakeholders in HEI community engagement and outlines the different connections and relationships that stakeholders may have depending on the type of community engagement initiative. From a university perspective and in line with the various approaches discussed earlier, community engagement may be either centralized or decentralized.

Figure 2.2 - SOFAR Framework Community Engagement



Source: Bringle et al. (2012)

Many HEIs founded centres or divisions that focus on community engagement on campus (Bringle and Hatcher, 2002). Community engagement may also be present in classrooms, in different academic units, among student organisations and in faculty research (Bringle and Hatcher, 2009). Schuetze (2010, p.13) elaborated that "*often it is not the institution as a whole but subunits like schools or facilities, institutes, centres, and programs, and individuals…that interact with and serve the community in various ways*". As community engagement emerges from various sectors in a university, the community itself may also be varied. Community partners can further include *"neighbourhoods, community agencies, schools, and corporate entities*" (Bringle et al., 2012, p. 3). The varying community engagement agenda in differing institutions will be reflected in the varying communities with whom HEIs engage.

The growth of the community engagement agenda in higher education is reflected in the increasing discussion and representation of the topic in the literature. Depending on the model through which community engagement is framed in an individual HEI, organisational structures and practices for community engagement at HEIs will take

different forms (Benneworth et al, 2018). It is increasingly acknowledged that there is no 'one-size-fits-all' approach to community engagement – it is always context-specific. Different places have different histories of university engagement, different cultures and different communities. The history, culture, structure, mission and strategic intent of a HEI within its locality and region will influence the level and type of community engagement that each institution supports. There is broad agreement in the literature that foundational elements of HEI community engagement include: the inclusion of community engagement within a HEI mission and corresponding infrastructure to support the practice; faculty and student involvement and mutually beneficial community partnerships. However, forging relationships with partners and communities outside academia raises some fundamental challenges for HEIs. Considerations in the practical application of realising community engagement is discussed in the next section.

2.6 Realising HEI Community Engagement

In capturing the growth and development of HEI community engagement, it must be acknowledged that university engagement with the wider community is not without challenges and tensions. There is often a dislocation between the theory of community engagement and its practice and application (Humphrey, 2013). Community engagement requires institutional commitment and embedding within an institutions mission and strategy (Robinson and Hudson, 2013). Structures and supports need to be in place to meet a HEIs community engagement agenda, in terms of resourcing, workload models and timetable supports (Humphrey, 2013). Academic involvement in community engagement may be varied and takes many forms either from a bottom-up approach or facilitated through institutional approaches. Whilst community engagement success is

often driven by academic champions, from an academic perspective the fact that participating in community engagement is often a risk for achieving tenure and promotion can be a barrier for faculty participation (Dempsey, 2010; Gelmon et al., 2013; Hoy and Johnson, 2013). Institutionally, this may reflect "*an absence of engagement as a core element of the institutional mission at many colleges and universities*" (Gelmon et al., 2013, p. 63). In discussing HEI Community engagement challenges, Kempton (2017, p. 282) suggested that tensions emerge in which the community engagement strategy is about "*allowing individuals the space to pursue their own engagement activities (bottom-up) or about an institutional approach (top-down)".* According to Millican (2014), in some institutions where community engagement has been highly embedded in the mission of the institution, it has resulted in a loss of agency of individual staff in engagement activities.

Academic staff may be experts in their disciplines, but they may need support to develop the skills of engagement needed to empower the voice of community participants (Bates et al., 2020). Some HEIs have dedicated outreach and engagement offices and staff which support faculty and student involvement in their community engagement agenda (Bernard and Bates, 2016). Quillinan et al. (2018), highlighted the need for appropriate academic staff with connections to community and an engagement approach that allowed for collaborative and shared learning. Moreover, engagement activity may not be a suitable activity for all academic staff. Context and pragmatism are required, as Callon (1999) noted what is normal and achievable for a particle physicist is necessarily far less than what is normal for an urban sociologist; while doing school outreach might represent a considerable effort for a particle physicist, the same is not true for sociologists.

According to Kingma (2014, p.113), "*the core value generation proposition for any university is to provide a quality education for students*". Students may be involved in community engagement through volunteering or community engaged learning (service learning). Community engaged learning was defined by Vanderbilt University (nd) as:

> *a form of experiential education where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding and skills for themselves*

Typically, community engaged learning is incorporated into a course or series of courses by way of a project that has both learning and community action goals. Community engaged learning has been identified by Kuh (2008) as a high-impact activity that can effectively increase student learning, engagement and retention. Despite the potential benefits to both partners, community engaged learning in practice is not without constraints. According to Bates et al. (2020), challenges in community engaged learning include: managing the expectations of both partners; lack of budget and available time; and the fact that students are learning the skills in real-time. Challenges that arise in community engaged learning projects may be addressed in the development of a partnership agreement between the academic institution and community partner which is based on the principles of partnership and reciprocity (Bourke et al., 2018). A partnership agreement may include agreed protocols for project management; managing expectations; roles and responsibilities, timelines and project review.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, contemporary definitions of HEI community engagement are focused on partnership and reciprocity between universities and community partners (Soska and Butterfield, 2013). According to Ward et al. (2013), reciprocal relations between institutions of higher education and communities are two-

way interchanges that involve collaboration and shared authority in shaping the relationship and its outcomes – campuses work with communities. It is not the equivalent of 'application' in higher education which conveys a unidirectional relationship of the campus applying its knowledge, resources and/or service to a community. This shift in how HEIs have interacted with their communities has been immense; according to Escrigas et al (2014, p xxxvi), there is now a focus on:

> *mutually beneficial, collaborative partnerships between HEIs and communities and that engagement initiatives are developed 'with the community, not to the community'.*

This requires HEIs to realise "*that the academic monopoly on knowledge creation has ended and that civil society is increasingly involved in the creation of knowledge*" (Granados Sanchez and Puig, 2015, p.113). According to Shannon and Wang (2010, p. 109):

> *the co-creation of knowledge in a mutually beneficial relationship needs to acknowledge the strengths of both partners: the academic knowledge of the university and the insights and experiences of the community.*

It is critical for the community partner to have an equitable role in the partnership; if not, an imbalance in power, in goals, and fairness results (Dempsey, 2009). Forging relationships with partners and communities outside academia raises some fundamental challenges for HEIs. This might include: HEIs misunderstanding of the heterogeneity of community (Dempsey, 2010); the digital divide between HEI and community (Dempsey, 2010); and inequalities in power, time and labour and resources (Gelmon et al., 2013). Through an analysis of community-university partnerships, Bringle and Hatcher (2002)

pointed to fairness, equity and integrity as necessary elements for mutually beneficial relationships.

Evidence of inequality in HEI community engagement has been captured in the academic literature. For example, much of the community engagement literature examines community-university partnerships from the higher education side through the perspectives of institutions, faculty and administrators (Adams, 2014; Sandy and Holland, 2006; Weerts and Sandmann, 2008; 2010). Escrigas et al. noted (2014, p. xxxvi) :

> *Whether the approach is how to position the HEI in a changing and complex world from a leadership perspective or how to support greater involvement of students and academic staff in knowledge contributions to community needs, the literature is heavily biased toward the HEI side of the engagement agenda.*

There are few published studies documenting the perspectives of community members in partnership with HEIs and it is acknowledged that this area continues to be under-represented in the literature (Birdsall, 2005; Bringle and Hatcher, 2002; Cruz and Giles, Jr., 2000; Sandy and Holland, 2006). In addressing this, Gelmon et al. (2013) highlighted that in some community engagement journals (for example, Johns Hopkins University Press's journal Progress in Community Health Partnership (PCHP)), research articles are accompanied by a 'community perspectives' article which is authored by community partners. The journal also integrates academic and community reviewers in the review process.

Whilst HEIs may increasingly cast themselves as engaged universities, there is often variation between the rhetoric and practice of community engagement. Community engagement requires the involvement of academics and students and corresponding structures need to be in place to realise community engagement. Successful community

engagement is premised on mutually beneficial and equitable relationships and requires universities to have a deep understanding of communities. The dynamics that come into play in a community-university partnership speak to the power imbalance and issues of legitimacy between the institution of higher education and its community partners (Hart and Northmore, 2011). This is especially salient when the partnership includes an underserved community (Hart and Northmore, 2011). The next section investigates the specific considerations in university engagement with disadvantaged and socially excluded communities.

2.7 HEI Community Engagement with Disadvantaged Communities

HEIs are working in a number of ways to alleviate disadvantage and social exclusion, from raising and changing aspirations and attainment levels to contributing to regional economic regeneration (Williams & Cochrane, 2013). Social exclusion involves individuals being systematically disadvantaged in ways that hinder their access to jobs, housing, transport, education and other services vital for participation in contemporary society (Benneworth et al., 2013) (Further explored in Chapter Four). Universities may contribute to social inclusion through engagement with disadvantaged communities in the provision of educational, cultural, social and recreational opportunities and facilities (Robinson et al., 2012).

In many countries, higher education policy is orientated towards the objective of promoting equity of access to higher education, with specific targeted initiatives for disadvantaged and under-represented groups. This is commonly referred to as widening access or participation. At a European level, the Bologna Process, established in 1999 to enhance the quality of higher education across Europe, emphasised the need for higher

education to strengthen social inclusion and ensure that higher education is more representative of the whole of society. In the past thirty years, equity of access to higher education has been a fundamental principle of Irish education policy. Considerable progress has been made in these three decades with participation in higher education rising from 20% of the relevant age cohort in 1980, to 44% in 1998 and 52% in 2011 (DES, 2015). A recent review of the five-year National Access Plan (DES, 2018b) identified increases in participation rates across several target groups, with high increases for students with disabilities and amongst socio-economically disadvantaged groups. Despite these developments, according to O'Brien (2019) a 'class gap' remains within Irish HEIs, whereby students in the most affluent parts of Dublin are up to 14 times more likely to progress to HEI than their counterparts in the city's most disadvantaged areas.

There remain many disadvantaged communities who rarely interact with HEIs. More generally, the types of communities that do not habitually and typically engage with HEIs are those that are socially weaker, may be socially excluded, and do not have the resources to readily and easily engage with HEIs (Benneworth et al., 2018). For some communities, a university campus can be physically intimidating and excluding (Robinson and Hudson, 2013). Some universities have addressed this through the provision of extra-mural and outreach provision in community settings, working closely with disadvantaged groups (Robinson et al, 2012). This involves delivering education close to communities and facilitating progression from basic to advanced educational levels. Different institutions have emphasized various dimensions, lifelong learning, learning in minority languages and flexible learning, alongside activities targeting other exclusion elements undermining participation in education, including health issues (Benneworth et al, 2013).

Whilst much of the academic literature equates community engagement with addressing issues of disadvantage (Boyer, 1996), there is a significant focus on the university perspective of community engagement through institutionalising community engagement and embedding community engagement into university infrastructure. In comparison, the study of HEI community engagement with socially excluded and disadvantaged communities is less explored (Benneworth et al, 2013). Existing studies build upon the key foundational elements identified in HEI community engagement (*cf* Section 2.5) and highlight the importance of valuing local knowledge and enabling community voice in the engagement of universities with socially excluded communities (McAteer and Wood, 2018). According to Robinson and Hudson (2013), a key element of effective university engagement with socially excluded communities is premised on the co-enquiry or co-production of knowledge. This approach recognises that both sides have something to offer and moves away from deficit-based models of engagement (Rawsthorne and de Pree, 2019).

Gidley et al. (2010, p.124), proposed a framework for understanding the engagement between socially excluded communities and inclusive higher education. The framework represented three varying degrees of inclusion: (1) social inclusion as access - linked to a neoliberal ideology[1]. From this perspective, increasing disadvantaged communities' access to higher education is linked to increasing the national skills base and improving an economy. This approach primarily works from models of knowledge deficiency; (2) social inclusion as participation/engagement – linked to a social justice

[1] From the perspective of neoliberal ideologies, increasing social inclusion involves investing in human capital and improving the skills shortages for the primary purpose of economic growth.

ideology[2]. This ideology is perhaps best understood through university-community partnerships, moving from an economic focus to more of a community development focus; (3) social inclusion as empowered success linked to a human potential ideology[3]. Employing models of possibility instead of deficiency, human potential approaches focus on inclusion and individual empowerment rather than disadvantage. Human potential approaches recognise and value the knowledge and capacity that is present in disadvantaged communities and move from models of knowledge deficiency to empowerment. Moving along the spectrum from equitable access to empowered success, this model frames engagement approaches from transactional to transformational as discussed earlier in this Chapter.

Benneworth (2013) proposed a framework for HEI community engagement with socially excluded and disadvantaged communities that is based on the premise that the engagement activity benefits both the community and the HEI through 'meaningful interaction'. Community agency and voice is an underlying premise of this approach. The framework comprises three elements: (1) active engagement by the community with the initiative or endeavour; (2) the excluded community is benefited by the process; and (3) the HEI relies on the engagement since a greater investment will lead to achieving the mission and goals of the higher education institution. Preece (2017) highlighted that successful engagement is based on participatory approaches where communities play an active part in the initiatives. Preece (2017) proposed a capabilities and asset-based

[2] Social justice ideologies suggest that social inclusion is about human rights, egalitarianism of opportunity, human dignity and fairness for all.

[3] Human potential ideology goes beyond economic equity and social justice ideologies with a focus on maximising the individual potential of each human being.

development framework for community engagement with disadvantaged communities. Preece (2017 p. 180) argued that:

> *universities no longer have a monopoly over knowledge and that communities are repositories of local, experiential, socially robust and indigenous knowledge.*

This approach identifies the assets in terms of skills and knowledge and the capacity within disadvantaged communities.

In comparison to the vast literature on broader HEI community engagement, a smaller body of work was identified which focused specifically on engagement of HEIs with socially excluded disadvantaged communities. This work builds upon the partnership approaches outlined earlier in the literature on community engagement (e.g. Bringle and Hatcher, 2012). Meaningful engagement with disadvantaged communities and socially excluded communities involves viewing *"communities as actors with agency and interests rather than purely as potential beneficiaries of universities' services"* (Benneworth, 2013, p.8). Successful engagement initiatives are premised on mutual benefice between the disadvantaged community and the university. According to Robinson et al (2012), HEIs need a *"good understanding of the community context: what is needed and what is feasible"*. Thus, it is important that the community is actively engaged in the development of initiatives and endeavours. This may be achieved through participatory approaches which identify a community or an individual's skills and assets and facilitates the co-creation and co-production of knowledge between a university and community.

2.8 Key considerations for HEI Community Engagement with Disadvantaged Communities

Recent decades have borne witness to a closer alignment between higher education and society with many HEIs embracing their 'third mission' of community engagement (Hazelkorn, 2016a). There is little consensus regarding a common definition of community engagement or set of principles (Ćulum, 2018). As an example, Cuthill (2011) found as many as 48 different terms used to refer to community engagement in higher education. Whilst the community engagement literature is a growing field, the study of the engagement between HEIs and disadvantaged and socially excluded is less explored (Benneworth, 2013). In considering the engagement of higher education and disadvantaged communities this study adopted the broad definition of community engagement by Benneworth et al (2018) (cf Section 2.4):

> *Community engagement is a process whereby HEIs engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way.*

This definition reflects a point that is strongly emphasised in the literature: that the principle of mutual benefit is central to community engagement (Sandmann, 2010; Benneworth et al., 2009; Goddard et al., 2018; Brown University, n.d.; Benneworth et al., 2018). Moreover, in the context of engagement with disadvantaged communities it implicitly acknowledges the complexity and varying needs and benefits for both partners in engagement activity.

As previously explored in this chapter, given the diversity of approaches and practices related to community engagement in higher education, it is rather difficult to summarise them all in one neat framework This study explored various dimensions of

community engagement including: classifications; typologies; models; and component frameworks (Benneworth et al., 2009; Bowen et al., 2010; Hazelkorn, 2016; Holland, 2001; Bringle et al., 2012). The Holland framework explores varying components of community engagement and is inclusive of HEI and community. This study utilised the theoretical constructs from the Holland Framework (2001) to reflect on the key considerations in the engagement between HEIs and disadvantaged communities. The Holland Framework (2001) identifies several foundational areas for successful community engagement including:

- University Mission and Institutional Infrastructure
- Community partnerships
- Academic Staff
- Students

The Holland Framework has been internationally applied and has been influential in the development of subsequent international assessment of HEI community engagement (Ward et al, 2013). Whilst the Holland Framework can be utilised to understand the level of community engagement within a HEI, it is also helpful in considering the components necessary for successful community engagement (Furco and Miller, 2009). Whilst little prior work utilises the Holland Framework specifically in the context of disadvantaged communities, it has been chosen in this study as a theoretical framework to reflect on the varying elements for consideration in the engagement of higher education with disadvantaged communities. Whilst not a perfect fit, the broad nature of the constructs facilitates deeper exploration of the subject.

- **University Mission and Institutional Infrastructure**

University mission statements may be conceptualised as an identity narrative, a type of symbolic representation of an institution for both internal and external constituents (Seeber et al.,2019). Missions generally consist of some combination of the same three elements: teaching, research and engagement (Lee, 1968). It is generally agreed that HEIs have many competing missions in terms of research, teaching and community engagement (Benneworth et al, 2013). Hazelkorn's (2016a) framework for conceptualising community engagement suggested that HEIs may approach community engagement from different stances or perspectives according to their own ethos and mission. It acknowledges that different types of engagement activities are more relevant and suitable to HEIs depending on the perspective, agenda, ethos and mission of each institution. According to Robinson et al (2012), institutional commitment is a major factor in developing successful engagement with disadvantaged communities. For community engagement to be taken seriously within a university "*it should be part of the institutional mission*" (Robinson and Hudson, 2013, p.12). Institutional commitment is realised in strategies and practices that support and encourage staff and faculty to engage with community. As observed earlier in this chapter, the theory and practice of community engagement may not always align and commitment to community engagement in strategic plans may not always translate into funding, promotional infrastructure, academic credits, resource allocations and workload models to facilitate sustainable engagement with communities (Humphrey, 2013). A HEI philosophy and mission that emphasises engagement (may specifically identify disadvantaged, underserved or socially excluded communities) and corresponding institutional strategy, leadership and

infrastructure that supports engagement practice is deemed a key factor in the engagement of HEIs with disadvantaged communities.

- **Community Partnership**

Holland (2001) proposed that a mutually beneficial sustained partnership with community partners is a key component of community engagement. According to Ward et al. (2013, p.24), this involves "*two-way interchanges that involve collaboration and shared authority in shaping initiatives and outcomes*". Benneworth (2013) identified the creation of mutual benefit between HEIs and socially excluded communities as a key to successful engagement. Quillinan et al. (2018) suggested that this 'authentic partnership' may be achieved when initiatives are designed 'with' rather than 'for' communities. This acknowledges the skills and capabilities present within communities enabling the co-creation of knowledge between the community and academia. Achieving authentic partnership requires relationship building and clear communication channels and can be challenged by inequity in relationships (Maiter et al., 2008). University community partnerships may involve one or several community stakeholders depending on the aim and objective of the engagement initiatives (Bringle et al., 2012 ; Kilpatrick and Loechel, 2004).

- **Academic Staff**

Holland (2001) proposed that genuine faculty involvement and support for engaged research or teaching is a key foundational element of HEI community engagement. This may be facilitated through a supportive university infrastructure in terms of workload allocation models and promotional criteria. In engaging with disadvantaged communities, Quillinan et al. (2018) highlighted the need for appropriate

academic staff with connections to community and a teaching style that allowed for collaborative and shared learning. Kingma (2014) highlighted the need for 'faculty champions' who can lead community engagement initiatives toward sustainability. Rubens et al. (2017) cautioned that community engagement activities are not ideal for all faculty and staff. Institutions should identify individuals that not only have the required skill set, but also have the disposition, orientation and perspective to be externally focused and that can engage with disadvantaged communities in reciprocal approaches.

- **Student Involvement**

Involving students in community engagement endeavours brings dynamism and vibrancy to engagement activity (Kingma, 2014). Students may be involved in community engagement with disadvantaged communities through volunteering or community-based learning. A HEIs commitment to community engagement may also be viewed through the embedding of service learning or community-based learning as part of its teaching strategy. Embedding community-based learning in communities requires managing the expectation of both university and community partners. Developing a partnership agreement between the academic institution and community partner which is based on the principles of partnership and reciprocity is considered good practice (Bourke et al.,2018).

The constructs explored through the Holland Framework (2001) are inclusive of the university (staff, students, mission and infrastructure) and community. The Holland framework serves as a theoretical framework through which it is possible to more deeply explore key concepts in the development of joint engagement activity between HEIs and disadvantaged communities.

2.9 Conclusion

HEI missions are changing - they have moved from one of teaching and research with some service to the community, to a larger focus on community engagement and sustainable development (Rubens et al, 2017). This responsibility of higher education to society is not new but has been given greater prominence in the knowledge-based society with continuing pressure on HEIs to contribute to social, cultural and economic development. Whilst 'third mission' activities have often focused on economic impact and engagement with industry, there is increasing demands on higher education to engage more broadly with communities to address societal and democratic challenges.

Robinson and Hudson (2013) argued that HEI engagement with disadvantaged and socially excluded communities could have considerable and beneficial impacts for both communities and universities. However, whilst building relationships with partners and communities outside the academy can be challenging for universities, a significant body of literature exists which identifies good practice in HEI community engagement. As a starting point, having a mission that promotes community engagement and supportive infrastructure is deemed important for the successful implementation of community engagement initiatives. Contemporary definitions of HEI community engagements are focused on partnership and mutually beneficial relationships between universities and communities. This is particularly important in the context of engagement disadvantaged communities. Whilst disadvantaged communities may not habitually and typically engage with HEIs, they possess valid knowledge and capabilities that should be acknowledged by HEIs and this can be achieved through reciprocal relationships. Supportive university leadership, the involvement of academic staff with an external

community focus and the inclusion of students are also considered key elements in HEI community engagement initiatives.

Chapter 3. Learning Enterprising Behaviour

3.1 Introduction

In recent decades, entrepreneurship has frequently been identified as playing a critical role in economic and societal development. This has led to the development of a wide-range of public policies and initiatives to support entrepreneurship and foster entrepreneurial behaviour (Ahmad and Hoffman, 2008; Lundstrom and Stevenson, 2006; Ribeiro-Soriano and Galindo-Martín, 2012). Consequently, there has been significant growth in entrepreneurial education in HEIs (Fayolle and Kyro, 2008), from a handful of courses in the 1970s to thousands around the globe today (Kuratko, 2014). Traditionally, entrepreneurial education in HEIs supported the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour with a strong business or new venture creation focus. However, contemporary entrepreneurial education has become attentive to engendering entrepreneurial competencies within individuals (Bacigalupo et al., 2016; Gibb, 1993). This approach aims to support the learning of enterprising behaviour, which has relevance for all aspects of an individual's life and may assist them in navigating the ever changing, chaotic global world in which they live (Gibb, 1993). Enterprising behaviour refers to the innovative and creative qualities within an individual and a positive attitude towards change (Blenker et al, 2012). Enterprising behaviour is a broader understanding of entrepreneurial behaviour as it can be applied to most aspects of life from personal development to commercial intention (Gibb, 2002).

This chapter explores the literature seeking to understand entrepreneurial education and training approaches that foster the learning of enterprising behaviour. The chapter begins by exploring a brief history of entrepreneurial thought leading to the perspective of entrepreneurship as a way of thinking and behaving relevant to all parts of society and the economy (Cooney, 2012a). This is followed by an exploration of

influencing factors in developing enterprising behaviour through the entrepreneurial ecosystem. The changing nature of entrepreneurial education within HEIs from traditional to more contemporary approaches that support the learning of enterprising behaviour is then examined. The chapter concludes by investigating education and training approaches that support the learning of enterprising behaviour outside HEIs and within disadvantaged communities.

3.2 A Brief History of Entrepreneurial Thought

It is generally recognised that entrepreneurial activity is one of the primary drivers of economic and societal growth and development (Carlsson et al., 2013). Morris et al (2013, p.1) argued that entrepreneurship is *"the most potent economic force the world has ever experienced".* The relevance of entrepreneurship to economic and societal development has resulted in significant growth in the field of entrepreneurship research (Landström et al., 2015). The domain of entrepreneurship research has developed from many sub-fields within several disciplines - primarily economics, management/business administration, sociology, psychology, economic and cultural anthropology, business history, strategy, marketing, finance and geography (Carlsson et al., 2013; Fagerberg et al., 2012). This breadth of disciplines makes the study of entrepreneurship interdisciplinary in nature with its foundations built upon a variety of research traditions, perspectives and methods (Murphy et al., 2006). This review will focus on three perspectives of entrepreneurship (the economist perspective, the individual-based approach and the process-based approach) which provide the building blocks and foundations for the subsequent analysis of the broader perspective of entrepreneurship as a way of behaving which can be applied in several different contexts.

3.2.1 The Economist Perspective

The historical foundations of entrepreneurship are deeply embedded in economics (Fayolle, 2007). Tracing its origins, the term ‘entrepreneur’ has been used in the French language system since the twelfth century (Murphy et al., 2006). The introduction of the word ‘entrepreneur’ to the economic vocabulary is attributed to Richard Cantillon, an Irish banker, who lived in France in the early 1700s. Loosely, Cantillon defined entrepreneurship as self-employment of any sort and entrepreneurs as risk takers, in the sense that they purchased goods at certain prices in the present to sell at uncertain prices in the future (Cantillon, 1734). The role of uncertainty and risk were particularly evident in Cantillon’s analysis of the entrepreneurial phenomenon. Cantillon is deemed the father of entrepreneurship and his work is thought to have influenced a long line of eminent economists (Murphy, 1986).

Jean Baptiste Say (1836), a French economist, built on Cantillon’s work in the study of entrepreneurship. Say conceptualised entrepreneurs as organisers and leaders of the economy. Say prioritised the role of the entrepreneur in his theory of production including human industry, capital and land (Barreto, 1989). In Say’s perspective the entrepreneur obtains and organizes production factors to create value (Bruyat and Julien, 2001). Over time in the proceeding century major changes in the understanding of entrepreneurship occurred. In 1942, Joseph Schumpeter, an Austrian economist, introduced the more modern interpretation of entrepreneurship to the economic vernacular. Schumpeter defined entrepreneurs as individuals who tend to break the equilibrium by introducing new innovations into a system (Schumpeter, 1942). Schumpeter has been credited with coining the phrase ‘creative destruction of equilibrium’. According to Schumpeter, innovations create new demand and

entrepreneurs bring innovations to the market. In Schumpeter's analysis, the role of the entrepreneur was an innovator and actor of change who creates 'new combinations' of products, processes and new markets supporting economic growth (Schumpeter, 1942).

From this brief analysis it is understood that the origins of entrepreneurship theory stem from an economics background. This school of thought identified the entrepreneur as a risk-taker, innovator, supplier of financial capital, decision maker, industrial leader, co-ordinator of economic resources, employer of factors of production and proprietor of an enterprise. The economist perspective, with their focus on the role of the entrepreneur in entrepreneurship, led to the exploration of entrepreneurship from the perspective of the entrepreneurial individual.

3.2.2 The Individual Approach

The economic perspective highlighted the importance of the entrepreneur and entrepreneurial activity to economic growth. Schumpeter's focus on the role and individuality of the entrepreneur provided important theoretical building blocks for subsequent entrepreneurship research (Schumpeter, 1942). Consequently, from the 1960s to 1990s, entrepreneurship scholarship became dominated by psychological, sociological, behavioural and cognitive theories (Pittaway, 2005). These theories sought to explain the mechanisms driving the emergence of the entrepreneurial process by making the entrepreneurial individual the centrepiece of investigation.

Personality theories came to inform earlier attempts at understanding the entrepreneur. Theorists like McClelland (1961) suggested that an individual's high 'achievement motive' predisposed them to act entrepreneurially. Another dominant personality theory was the 'locus of control', derived from Rotter's (1966) social learning

theory. It proposed that some individuals believe achievement of their goals is strictly based on their own actions. As such, those who believe they can control their destinies are more driven to become entrepreneurs. To add to the personality-based view of the entrepreneur, Brockhaus (1982) considered a risk-taking propensity as being a necessary mechanism which drives entrepreneurial action. Against the many criticisms of personality theories, Aldrich (1999, p. 76) concluded that they were "*an empirical dead end*".

The failure of personality theories to yield valuable and conclusive insights prompted a sociological perspective on entrepreneurship. Accordingly, Kets de Vries (1977) and Shapero (1975) suggested that entrepreneurs were displaced and socially marginalised individuals, who had been forced into an entrepreneurial way of life by circumstances. Negative factors were considered a dominant driving mechanism behind entrepreneurial action. This perspective on the entrepreneurial individual has become the basis for contemporary entrepreneurship research in areas such as minority, immigrant and ethnic entrepreneurship.

However, individual-based approaches to studying entrepreneurship were regularly subject to criticism. Stevenson and Jarillo (1990) suggested that it was difficult to model and explain entrepreneurship through psychological or sociological trait analysis. In a seminal work, Gartner (1988) argued that 'Who is an entrepreneur?' was the wrong question for entrepreneurial scholarship. According to Gartner, the entrepreneur is only one part of that process, thus research should focus on what the entrepreneur does – not who he or she is. Some commentators would suggest that Gartner (1988) altered the traditional discussion concerning entrepreneurship from a focus on the person to an examination of the behaviour of the entrepreneur. Gartner contended that an

entrepreneur was someone who identified a business opportunity, accumulated resources, marketed the product or service and created an organisation. Bygrave and Hofer (1992) extended this perspective by highlighting the notion of entrepreneurship as a process which involves all functions, activities and actions associated with perceiving opportunities and the creation of organisations to pursue them. This shift in focus in the field of entrepreneurship research was also driven by economic and political changes in society during this period. The seminal work by Birch in the 1980s (Birch, 1987) played an influential role in making the phenomenon of entrepreneurship linked to small business 'visible'. Birch highlighted that the majority of new jobs in the US were created by new and small firms – not large established companies (Landström et al., 2015). New technological developments, coupled with changes in the industrial nature of work, meant that the number of people employed in large corporations was declining. Governments began to recognise the link between entrepreneurship and economic development and amongst other policy developments, the need for entrepreneurial education began to gain prominence.

3.2.3 The Process-Based Perspective

At the dawn of the 21st century, the growing societal recognition of entrepreneurship resulted in the rapid growth of entrepreneurship as a domain of scholarship. Gartner's research began a movement in entrepreneurship research towards an understanding of a behavioural and process approach to entrepreneurship (Gartner, 1988; 1989; 1990). The process-based perspective viewed entrepreneurship as a complex phenomenon that should be considered as a whole, rather than a narrow focus on specific human traits or economic functions (Fayolle, 2007). Studies in the field of

entrepreneurship were drawn together by the conceptual framework proposed by Shane and Venkataraman (2000, p.218) to explain the phenomenon of entrepreneurship. They conceptualised entrepreneurship studies as:

> *the study of the sources of opportunities; the process of discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities; and the set of individuals who discover, evaluate and exploit them*

Thus, according to Shane and Venkataraman (2000), entrepreneurship involves the nexus of two phenomena: the presence of enterprising individuals and discovering and exploiting opportunity. From the perspective of Shane and Venkataraman (2000), entrepreneurship was described as the Individual-Opportunity (IO) nexus. By including the "*creation of future goods and services"* Shane and Venkataraman reinforced the idea that entrepreneurship is a process of emergence leading to new economic activity (Davidsson, 2016, p.23).

Shane (2003) built upon the Individual-Opportunity concept and proposed a model of the entrepreneurial process. He utilised the IO nexus to explain the multifaceted process of entrepreneurship as the processes of discovery and exploitation of opportunities, the acquisition of resources, entrepreneurial strategy, and the organizing process. Shane's model went beyond focusing on just one aspect of the entrepreneurial process, but rather highlighted the relationship and connectedness of all elements to each other. The process approach to entrepreneurship identified entrepreneurship as a complex phenomenon that should be considered holistically rather than a narrow focus on specific traits or economic functions.

It is argued that the process approach to entrepreneurship may be viewed from two different research perspectives 'The American Perspective' and the 'European or

Scandinavian Perspective' (Gartner, 2013; Davidsson, 2013). In the American View, entrepreneurship was seen as an economic phenomenon; tracing and exploiting opportunities and creating something new (Bjerke and Rämö, 2011). Conversely, from the 'European or Scandinavian View', entrepreneurship was seen as a form of social creativity (Bill et al. , 2010) belonging to the whole of society, not just to its economy. From this perspective, entrepreneurship as a societal force was demonstrated in the creation of new forms of societal value (Hjorth, 2013). In this way, entrepreneurship was conceptualised as more than the creation of business and viewed more broadly as a societal rather than just the narrower economic phenomenon (Holmquist, 2003; Kuratko, 2005; Steyaert and Katz, 2004). Thus began a field of study in entrepreneurship research which broadened the narrow business or economic understanding of entrepreneurship to incorporate new fields including areas such as social entrepreneurship, academic entrepreneurship, intrapreneurship and entrepreneurship as everyday practice that has relevance more broadly in society (Bridge et al., 2010; Blenker et al., 2014).

3.2.4 The Broader Perspective of Entrepreneurship

As entrepreneurship became studied more broadly as a societal phenomenon, new perspectives of entrepreneurship with a wider meaning and broader relevance beyond economic matters developed (Fayolle et al., 2015). Spinosa et al. (1997) introduced an understanding of entrepreneurship as 'everyday practice'. According to Spinosa et al. (1997), opportunities arose from the everyday practice of individuals as they disclose personal disharmonies or problems in their everyday practices and transform them into opportunities. From this perspective, entrepreneurship was not an elitist phenomenon, but a possibility for everyone. Gibb (1993, 2002) conceptualised entrepreneurship as a way

of behaving and a set of attributes and skills which can be applied in several different contexts. Gibb (2002, p.243) argued that:

> *In order to place entrepreneurship in a much wider context than that of business it is necessary to focus upon the nature of 'enterprise' in individuals and upon the ways that effective enterprising behaviour can be encouraged in all kinds of organisational, social and economic circumstances.*

Conceptualising entrepreneurship as 'enterprising behaviour' does not need to include any commercial aspect, but it involves initiative and an attitude attuned to enterprise and new ventures (Blenker et al, 2012).

Sarasavathy and Venkataraman's (2011) pivotal article which conceptualised entrepreneurship as a general method that can be used by anyone who cares to learn it, highlighted the broadening perspective and interpretation of entrepreneurship and its relevance to a broader cohort of society. Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011) viewed entrepreneurship as a method for human action, comprising of principles and techniques that anyone can learn through basic education. According to this view, entrepreneurship has the potential to unleash a valuable and creative potential that lies in every human being (Goss et al, 2011). Building upon the wider definition of entrepreneurship and adapting the IO nexus (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000), Blenker et al. (2012, p.428) proposed entrepreneurship as enterprising behaviour, whereby:

> *Enterprising activity is always present where individuals meet opportunities through reflection, action and creation. Opportunities are conceptualised as arising from the everyday practice of individuals and emanate through disclosing anomalies and disharmonies in an individual's life*

From this perspective, entrepreneurship has relevance not just to a select few, but to a larger cohort of society whereby opportunities do not exist independently of individuals, but rather are inextricably linked to individuals from their everyday life. Blenker et al. (2011; 2012) expanded the definition of entrepreneurship beyond a primarily economic profit seeking phenomenon to a broader understanding of enterprising behaviour based on an individual-opportunity nexus.

More recently, Bacigalupo et al. (2016) developed the 'Entrecomp framework' and defined entrepreneurship as a competence:

> *Entrepreneurship is a transversal competence which applies to all spheres of life from nurturing personal development, to actively participating in society, to (re)entering the job market as an employee or as a self-employed person, and also to starting up ventures (cultural, social or commercial).*

The Entrecomp approach builds upon the broader definition of entrepreneurship that is domain neutral, proposing that anyone can act upon ideas and opportunities to generate value for others in any domain and possible value chain.

As can be observed from the above analysis, the broader perspective regards entrepreneurship as behaviours, skills or competences that can be fostered to enable individuals, organisations, communities, societies and cultures to be flexible, creative and adaptable. This conceptualisation of entrepreneurship moves beyond the common understanding of entrepreneurship as what entrepreneurs do in the creation of business, jobs and wealth. The broad approach is largely based on the concept of entrepreneurship as something demonstrated in the actions that people take. These actions can be enterprising in a variety of situations, not just in business. These actions are

predominantly based on the make-up of individuals concerned in terms of behaviours, attributes, competencies, attitudes, skills, ideas and resources (Bridge and O'Neill, 2018).

Shane and Venkataraman (2000, p. 217) suggested that "*entrepreneurship has become a broad label under which a hodgepodge of research is housed*". As observed from this brief study of entrepreneurial thought there are multiple perspectives on entrepreneurship. Some of the more commonly used are concerned with: risk and uncertainty (Cantillon, 1734); the creation of new enterprise (Low and MacMillan, 1988); the creation and emergence of new organisations (Gartner, 1988); the process by which individuals – either on their own or inside organisations – pursue opportunities without regard to the resources they currently control (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990); innovation and alertness to new opportunities (Schumpeter, 1942; Kirzner, 1973); identification, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000); judgmental decision-making under uncertainty (Foss and Klein, 2012; Knight, 1921); the creation of new economic activity (Davidsson et al., 2006); entrepreneurship as a method (Sarasvathy and Venkataraman, 2011); entrepreneurship as a transverse competence (Bacigulapo et al., 2016) and entrepreneurship as enterprising behaviour (Gibb 2002b; Blenker et al., 2011; 2012). More recently, there is a growing differentiation between the narrow interpretation of entrepreneurship synonymous with business founding and development and a broader definition of entrepreneurship which relates to a way of behaving that can be applied in a number of situations (Gibb, 2008). This study is situated within the broader paradigm of entrepreneurship as it seeks to understand the broader concept of entrepreneurship and its relevance to communities that may not be traditionally associated with entrepreneurship. This impacted the choice of the definition of

entrepreneurship for this study. For sake of clarity, this study follows Gibb (2005, p.18) when he defined entrepreneurship as:

> Behaviours, skills and attributes applied individually and/or collectively to help individuals and organisations of all kinds to create, cope with and enjoy change and innovation involving higher levels of uncertainty and complexity as a means of achieving personal fulfilment.

Differentiating between the narrow and broad interpretation of entrepreneurship does not diminish the well-founded arguments that entrepreneurship is vital to economic and social wellbeing; rather, it centres the discourse beyond a purely economic perspective of entrepreneurship and broadens the relevance of entrepreneurship to a wider variety of people in many different circumstances (Gibb, 2002a; Jones et al., 2015; Kuratko, 2005; Matlay, 2005; Fayolle et al., 2006; Nabi et al., 2006; QAA, 2012). Moreover, it is important to acknowledge the common tendency in society to perceive entrepreneurs as predominantly male heroic individuals possessing special innate traits and preferring to work under adverse conditions in solitude (Hytti, 2005, Ogbor, 2000). In an education context, applying such a view of entrepreneurship is counter-productive and leads to alienation of (not only female) students (Leffler, 2012), neglect of the potential in collective team-based entrepreneurial endeavours (Drnovsek et al., 2009, Garud and Karnøe, 2003) and a damaging reproduction of outdated, gender-biased and oversimplistic images of entrepreneurship (Jones, 2014). The alternative broader perspective of entrepreneurship which incorporates the development of enterprising behaviour is better suited to the educational domain. From this perspective, entrepreneurship can be perceived as a generic method for human action, comprising of principles and techniques that anyone can learn through supportive education (Sarasvathy

and Venkataraman, 2011). The growth and movement in education towards fostering the learning of enterprising behaviour opens the potential and relevance for enterprising behaviour beyond the business school and its relevance into many more disciplines and contexts. Enterprise education takes a more creative, innovative pedagogical approach that utilises experiential action learning methods (Jones and Iredale, 2010). This active learning pedagogy has relevance in both formal education and informal education settings such as community and adult education (Connolly, 2010). Furthermore, broadening the definition of entrepreneurship is inclusive and suggests that entrepreneurial capacity resides in everyone, not just those who already exercise the capacity.

In order to avoid confusion, it is important to differentiate clearly between the two interpretations of entrepreneurship utilised throughout this study – entrepreneurial behaviour and enterprising behaviour. In this study, the term entrepreneurial behaviour is underpinned by a narrow perspective and conceptualisation of entrepreneurship, that of new venture creation, business and economic activity. Entrepreneurial behaviour refers to the innovative and creative qualities within an individual that are applicable in the development of new ventures. Thus, in this study the term 'entrepreneurial behaviour' is followed in brackets by the term narrow. In this study it is understood that, enterprising behaviour refers similarly to the innovative and creative qualities within an individual with a positive and proactive attitude to change, with the notable exception that they can be applied in multiple contexts and aspect of life (e.g. sport, job, community initiatives, personal life, social entrepreneurship, voluntary work, art, citizenship etc.). Thus, in this study the term 'enterprising behaviour' is followed by the term broad in brackets. Supporting the learning of entrepreneurial and enterprising behaviour requires different pedagogical approaches which is further discussed in depth later in this Chapter.

3.3 Defining Enterprising Behaviour

As discussed earlier in this chapter, Gartner (1988) altered the traditional discussion concerning entrepreneurship from a focus on the person to an examination of the behaviour of the entrepreneur. Gartner contended that an entrepreneur was someone who identified a business opportunity, accumulated resources, marketed the product or service and created an organisation. A growing body of literature differentiates between the concept of entrepreneurial behaviour and enterprising behaviour. Entrepreneurial behaviour may be understood as the concrete and observable actions that are required to start and grow a new organisation (Bird et al. 2012; Gruber and MacMillan, 2017). This is underpinned by a narrow paradigm of entrepreneurship, that of new venture creation (Verstraete and Fayolle 2005; Gartner 1988). Enterprising behaviour is underpinned by the broader meaning of entrepreneurship and can be applied in many different contexts, not just in the context of self-employment or the creation of new ventures (Gibb, 2002b).

Gibb (1987, p.6) was the first scholar to discuss the concept of enterprising behaviour when he suggested that a more basic kind of entrepreneurial behaviour existed, denoting something broader than business entrepreneurship and involving:

> *initiative, strong persuasive power, moderate rather than high risk-taking, flexibility, creativity, independence/autonomy, need for achievement, imagination, high internal beliefs of control, leadership and hard work*

Gibb defined this more basic kind of behaviour as enterprising behaviour (Gibb, 1993, 2002). Gibb (1993, p.13) characterised enterprising behaviour as:

> *opportunity seeking; initiative taking; making things happen independently; problem solving and risk taking; commitment to work and tasks; and creativity*

This is underpinned by several attributes and skills. In clarifying the distinction between entrepreneurial behaviour and enterprising behaviour, Gibb (2002b, p. 259) differentiated the terms as follows:

> *The enterprising person can be described as one who demonstrates behaviours such as creativity, initiative taking, energising events, leading others, thinking of new ways of doing things, for example. The entrepreneurial person can be described similarly, with the general exception that there are notions of making money and carrying out business activity.*

Thus, the behaviour required in both circumstances is similar, but the context is different. Gibb (2002b) argued that entrepreneurial education has the potential to help foster enterprising and entrepreneurial behaviour. Gibb's (2002b) contribution on entrepreneurship as a type of behaviour is recognised internationally and has been pivotal in the development of entrepreneurial education in higher education (Jones et al, 2014).

A growing body in the literature has begun to explore the relevance of enterprising behaviour in a variety of contexts and disciplines beyond business and new venture creation. Whilst a detailed analysis and discussion of entrepreneurial education follows in section 3.5 and 3.6, at this juncture it is important to differentiate between the type of education that supports the learning of enterprising behaviour (broad) and the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow). Enterprise education should not be confused or mistaken for entrepreneurship education (Jones and Iredale, 2010). Entrepreneurship education is focused on the processes and practicalities of how to start a business and often taught via the development of a business plan. In contrast, enterprise education is much more focused on the 'capabilities' and 'potential' of individuals to adapt to changing circumstances and the associated 'behaviours' and 'skills' needed to function

effectively as a consumer, citizen, employee or self-employed person in society (Jones and Iredale, 2014). Kuratko (2005) describes this as developing an "entrepreneurial perspective" which has relevance to a wide variety of contexts. The scope and practice of enterprise education is much broader than entrepreneurship education. Enterprise education supports the learning of enterprising behaviour (broad) and has relevance across a range of subject areas, different phases of education and different contexts (Jones and Iredale, 2014). In contrast, entrepreneurship education predominantly focuses on the development of business skills and fostering entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) and is often offered by business schools.

According to Jones and Iredale (2010), enterprise education is concerned with teamwork, confidence building and problem solving. It provides learners with the knowledge to function effectively as a citizen, consumer, employee or self-employed person. It is focused on fostering the use of enterprising skills, behaviours and attributes throughout the life course "*in the community, at home, in the workplace, in social enterprise or as an entrepreneur in a flexible market economy"* (Jones and Iredale, 2010, p.10). Several studies have explored the relevance of enterprise education and the learning of enterprising behaviour beyond the business sphere. Davies et al. (2001) identified that enterprise education has an important and often overlooked role to play in fostering responsible citizenship. Developing this further, Deuchar (2004, 2007) identified that enterprise education can be a useful vehicle for promoting the concept of freedom and civic responsibilities. Other studies identified that fostering the learning of enterprising behaviour can help develop personal qualities and skills appropriate for use in a variety of contexts in an increasingly uncertain and insecure world (Heery and Salmon, 2000).

It has been suggested that the active learning pedagogy within enterprise education is not subject specific and can be introduced and applied across a variety of disciplines and contexts (Iredale,1993, 2002; Ofsted, 2004). This broadens the relevance of enterprising behaviour into other literatures and fields including: the arts, humanities and social sciences; the sciences and sports. Hartshorn and Hannon (2005) identified the relevance of the enterprising behaviour concept for the sciences. Focused on providing students with enterprise skills necessary for survival and success in a rapidly changing and turbulent employment market, the initiative focused on supporting graduates who are *"capable of being innovative, can recognise and create opportunities, take risks, make decisions, analyse and solve problems and communicate their findings clearly and effectively"* (Garavan 1997, p. 107).

Beckman (2007) reviewed arts entrepreneurship and delineated two streams of definitional and curricular thought among arts educators with respect to entrepreneurship education: entrepreneurship as 'new venture creation' (involving enterprise start-up and management), and what Beckman calls the 'transitioning' approach, which corresponds broadly to career self-management and being employable. Bridgstock (2012) introduced a third sense to arts entrepreneurship 'being enterprising' which aligns with the concept of enterprise education and the learning of enterprising behaviour (Jones and Iredale, 2010). Bridgstock (2012) argued that the narrow sense of the term entrepreneurship (entrepreneurial behaviour) involving the pursuit of profit and new venture creation is too narrow a conceptualisation for the arts. According to Bridgstock (2012), for an artist, the practice of entrepreneurship is multi-layered, and qualitatively different for the narrow conceptualisation in the traditional business sense and a broader understanding is required.

In sports literature, Bill (2009) and later Van Ratten (2018) identified the relevance of fostering the development of enterprising behaviour within the broad field of sport. They argued that the broader definition of entrepreneurship as 'being enterprising' has particular relevance in non-profit and social forms of sport within the sports sector, whereby opportunities can be exploited to create change. This broader definition identifies that entrepreneurship in sport can occur in a variety of ways and different contexts.

In the contemporary literature, Blenker et al. (2008, p. 57) suggested that enterprising behaviour may be understood as a pre-requisite to entrepreneurial behaviour:

> *This prerequisite may be described as an ability to see the anomalies of everyday life and use them as the foundation for understanding the world and changing it*

Adapting Shane and Venkataraman's (2000) IO nexus in the context of entrepreneurial education, Blenker et al. (2012) argued that enterprising behaviour can be fostered through supporting individuals to identify opportunities in their everyday life. Later, Blenker et al. (2015) and Thrane et al. (2016) developed and empirically investigated an education framework to support the learning of enterprising behaviour. This framework is discussed later in this chapter.

For clarity, the definition of enterprising behaviour which is understood in this study is provided below. This definition is adapted from Gibb (2002, p.259) and Blenker et al. (2012, p.419).

Enterprising behaviour refers to the formation of innovative and creative qualities in an individual. Enterprising behaviour is a positive, flexible and proactive attitude to change which denotes a broader meaning of entrepreneurship. It does

not need to include any commercial aspect, but it involves initiative and an attitude attuned to enterprise and new ventures. Enterprising behaviour can take place in many different contexts.

This definition was chosen for this study as it acknowledges that enterprising behaviour involves the development of an individual's creative and innovative capabilities and clearly resides within the broad interpretation of entrepreneurship. In identifying that enterprising behaviour involves initiative and attitude attuned to enterprise and new venture it implicitly draws upon the behaviour of entrepreneurs in a traditional sense (narrow) including opportunity identification, risk and uncertainty, value creation, yet, explicitly states that this type of behaviour can take place in many different contexts. This definition is applicable in a variety of contexts including "*in the community, at home, in the workplace, in social enterprise or as an entrepreneur in a flexible market economy"* (Jones and Iredale, 2010). Moreover, is has relevance beyond a business context, in a personal context, arts and humanities, science, sport and civic society also. Thus, enterprising behaviour is applicable broadly in society and communities.

3.4 Factors that Influence Enterprising Behaviour

The importance of the role of entrepreneurship is emphasized in both European and global development views (European Commission, 2013). Several studies argue that entrepreneurship (whether in business, social or cultural undertakings) fosters economic and societal development, creates jobs and helps society cope with the global problems of the twenty-first century (OECD, 2003; Volkmann et al., 2009; Lundstrom and Stevenson, 2006; Ribeiro-Soriano and Galindo-Martín, 2012). Supporting entrepreneurial activity has become a global phenomenon, and governments and policy

makers have paid increasing attention to it. Whilst entrepreneurship results from the creativity, drive and skills of individuals, the actions of governments and their policies are a key influence on the external environment in which it takes place (Smallbone, 2017). Other commentators have suggested that cultural factors have a significant influence on entrepreneurial activity (Dennis, 2011). The concept of an 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' is often used to describe the environment which supports entrepreneurial activity and where innovation thrives.

The entrepreneurial ecosystem approach is relatively recent and there is no widely shared definition (Stam, 2015). In general terms, the concept emphasises that entrepreneurship takes place within a community of interdependent actors (Feld, 2012; Isenberg, 2011; 2010; Spigel, 2017; Stam, 2015). It emphasis that an individual entrepreneur is the focal point of the ecosystem surrounded by organisations and institutions that influence entrepreneurial activity. The term 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' is constituted of a number of parts. There is an 'eco' part which is linked to the analogy of ecological systems that are symbiotic and constantly adapting. There is a 'systems' part that suggests the environment is a complex system of interwoven and adaptive components that is dynamic and constantly changing (Stam, 2015). Lastly, there is an 'entrepreneurial' part, which is variously defined but often includes to differing degrees, 'high growth ventures', 'small businesses' (Roundy, 2016) and 'technology-based ventures' (Baumol, 1996). While there is some debate, it seems generally acknowledged that 'entrepreneurial' in this context implies 'high added value ventures' and not traditional small businesses and/or self-employment (Stam, 2015). Moreover, there is much focus on the 'typical' entrepreneur in a new venture creation context, although emerging literature represents a more heterogenous approach to the study of

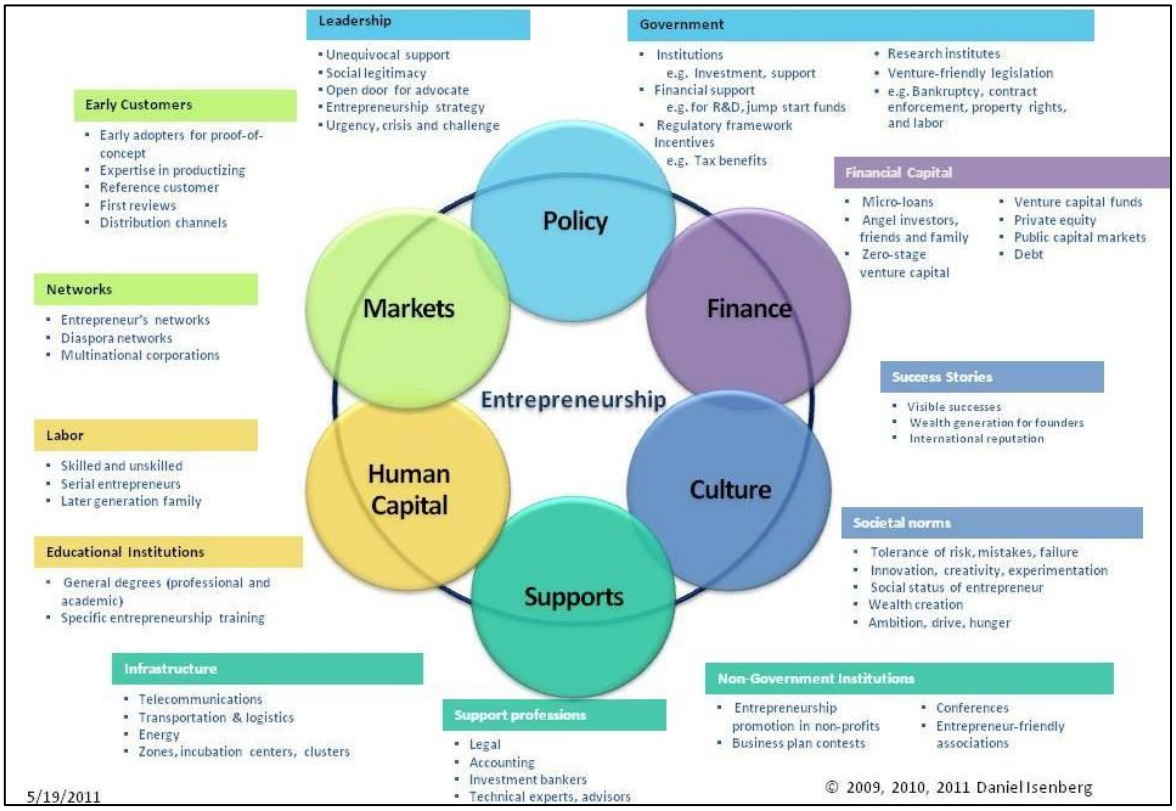
entrepreneurial ecosystems including social enterprise (Roundy, 2017) and disadvantaged communities (Maritz and Foley, 2018). The first academic journal article analysing 'enterprising behaviour' and entrepreneurial ecosystems was recently published by the researcher of this study (O'Brien et al., 2019).

Recent literature attempting to identify key attributes of entrepreneurial ecosystems (Brown and Mason, 2014; Spigel, 2017; Stam 2015) builds upon earlier literature in industrial clusters, innovation systems and learning regions (Spigel and Harrison, 2018). The literature identifies entrepreneurial ecosystems as "*the social, economic, political and cultural contexts that support high growth entrepreneurship within a region"* (Spigel, 2017, p. 50). They are often identified as a "regional economic development strategy that is based around creating supportive environments that foster innovative start-ups" (Spigel and Harrison, 2018, p. 151). Much of the existing work on entrepreneurial ecosystems and the influences of entrepreneurship in regions has been focused on macro forces such as the institutional, political and economic factors that contribute to high rates of growth within a region. However, there is a general consensus that a strong entrepreneurial ecosystem is required to provide relevant support to potential, nascent and existing entrepreneurs. Isenberg (2010) argued that entrepreneurs are most successful when they have access to the human, financial and professional resources they need, and when they operate in an environment in which government policies encourage and safeguard entrepreneurs.

While each national or regional entrepreneurship system is unique, according to Isenberg, there are six domains within a successful entrepreneurial ecosystem and these are: (1) a conducive culture; (2) supportive policies and leadership; (3) available and appropriate finance; (4) high-quality human capital; (5) venture-friendly product markets;

and (6) institutional and infrastructural supports (see Figure 3.2). Feld (2012) argued that start-up ecosystems and communities can be created within one's own city and suggested that four key elements were required: (1) entrepreneurs must lead the start-up community; (2) the leaders must have a long-term commitment; (3) the start-up community must be inclusive of anyone who wants to participate in it; and (4) the start-up community must have continual activities that engage the entire entrepreneurial stack. Feld argued strongly that the role of a HEI in a start-up community can be a powerful one as it acts as a feeder into the system.

Figure 3.2 - Domains of the Entrepreneurial Ecosystem



Source: Isenberg (2010)

However, Spigel (2017) argued that as a theoretical concept, ecosystems remain underdeveloped, making it difficult to understand their structure and influence on the entrepreneurship process. Spigel suggested that ecosystems are composed of ten cultural,

social and material attributes that provide benefits and resources to entrepreneurs and that the relationships between these attributes enhances the ecosystem. While the configurations and levels of impact of entrepreneurial ecosystems on entrepreneurial activity have not been definitively agreed, it is broadly concurred that a strong entrepreneurial ecosystem can positively stimulate entrepreneurial activity.

Yet, most theory and findings regarding entrepreneurial ecosystems are based on studies of established ecosystems in large urban and regional hubs, often located in developed countries. It is suggested that there is less of a focus on entrepreneurial ecosystems in small towns, rural locations and HEI locations (Roundy, 2017). Moreover, as discussed previously, much of the literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems is focused on developing entrepreneurial behaviour focused on high growth ventures with an absence of discussion regarding how the wider concept of enterprising behaviour may have resonance within entrepreneurial ecosystems. In a recent study, Cowell et al. (2018) identified that some groups experience uneven access to resources and networks, particularly under-resourced geographies or under-represented populations who require more substantive attention within the entrepreneurial ecosystem. This concept is discussed in detail in Chapter 4 in the context of disadvantaged communities.

The role of educational institutions within entrepreneurial ecosystems feature in the Human Capital and Supports domain (Figure 3.2). Volkmann et al. (2009) and the WEF (2011) identified that education institutions within an entrepreneurial ecosystem may include primary and secondary schools, HEIs, and informal education. Prior work focuses on the role of HEIs within entrepreneurial ecosystems and there is some consensus that having a HEI (or HEIs) within an ecosystem is important (Neck et al., 2004; Feldman, 2001; Spigel, 2017; Moretti, 2013). HEIs have several roles within an

ecosystem such as developing entrepreneurial education initiatives for students and supporting outreach engagement activities in research commercialisation and knowledge transfer. Audretsch (2014) argued that the role of HEIs within society and entrepreneurial ecosystems stretches beyond generating technology transfer (through, for example, patents, spin-offs and start-ups) encompassing wider regional roles such as contributing and providing leadership for creating entrepreneurial thinking, entrepreneurial capital and facilitating behaviour to prosper in society. This would arguably include the whole of society, not just communities that regularly engage with HEIs. The role of HEIs in influencing enterprising and entrepreneurial behaviour is explored later in this chapter.

3.5 Learning Enterprising Behaviour

According to Rae (2015) entrepreneurial learning is a process in which individuals, groups (such as venture teams or communities) and organisations develop and practice the knowledge, skills and capabilities they require to take entrepreneurial actions, and to achieve outcomes which may transform themselves, their ventures, and their social, cultural and economic context. Entrepreneurial learning can be understood from: (i) the perspective of the entrepreneur during the process of exploring and exploiting an entrepreneurial opportunity in the creation of a new venture, (ii) entrepreneurial learning in an education context and (iii) entrepreneurial learning in organisations. Given the focus of this study, entrepreneurial learning in an education and training context is further explored

Historically, it was a topic of much debate whether entrepreneurs are born or made. Drucker (1985, p 52) argued that entrepreneurship is a practice and that:

Most of what you hear about entrepreneurship is all wrong. It's not magic; it's not mysterious; and it has nothing to do with genes. It's a discipline and, like any discipline, it can be learned.

More recently, three systematic reviews of the entrepreneurial education literature (Nabi et al., 2017; Pittaway and Cope, 2007; Rideout and Gray, 2013) illustrated the impact, purpose and pedagogy of entrepreneurial education and presented an impressive landscape of work which provided systematic evidence that entrepreneurship is teachable. If the broader perspective of entrepreneurship as a way of behaving is adopted than it stands to reason that education and training can play a key role in its development. Gibb (1987, 2008) acknowledged that while enterprising behaviour can be both culturally and experimentally acquired, it is consistently being influenced by education and training across all levels of the education continuum. In the educational domain, the two terms enterprise and entrepreneurship education indicate that there are differing views on what is meant by entrepreneurship, one termed "broad" and one termed "narrow" (Lackéus, 2015). This reflects the arguments more broadly in the entrepreneurship domain as discussed earlier in this chapter. More recently the debate has widened further and there is much confusion regarding the differentiation between entrepreneurship education and enterprise education with little agreement being reached concerning these terms, although they are frequently used interchangeably.

Researchers such as Verzat (2011) suggested that the boundaries between entrepreneurship education and enterprise education may be formed mainly on educational objectives. In this way, enterprising education can help people to acquire behaviours and attitudes for enterprising initiatives. In other words, enterprising education encourages a focus on antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions (i.e. attitudes

towards entrepreneurship, social norms and self-efficacy). Enterprising education fosters the development of enterprising behaviour to assist individuals to improve their personal knowledge and cognitive processes in order to take initiative and decision with autonomy, interacting and adapting themselves with their social environment. Conversely, entrepreneurship education fosters the development of entrepreneurial behaviour and is mainly centred on the following issues: (1) how to identify/construct and exploit opportunities to create new products, new services or new markets, and (2) how to think and act like an entrepreneur in order to create economic and social value within an existing organisation (i.e. an enterprise or a non-profit organisation).

Regional differences also exist. American scholars primarily use the concept 'entrepreneurship education' and tend to understand the concept rather narrowly as education that is commercially oriented and focused on creating the competencies needed to perform entrepreneurial start-ups. Within the British tradition the concept of 'enterprise education' is dominant and tends to indicate an approach that seeks to support a broad form of entrepreneurship as 'enterprising behaviour', where the assumption is that if more general enterprising competencies can be learned, these competencies can be useful, not only in the creation of new ventures, but in many different walks of life (Gibb, 2002; Blenker et al., 2011). Looking at continental Europe, confusion increases further as many North-European scholars use the term entrepreneurship education (like the Americans), but often focus on the creation of broad competencies. Many Nordic researchers (Erkkila, 2000; Lackéus, 2017; Hoppe et al., 2017) use concepts such as entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial education in ways that are rather similar to the British use of the concepts of enterprising behaviour and enterprise education. Erkkila (2000) proposed the unifying term 'entrepreneurial education' as encompassing both enterprise

and entrepreneurship education and this term is utilised throughout this study. This discussion on concepts may seem academic and futile, but instead of seeing the American and European traditions as competing or opposites, it may be more fruitful to approach them as different elements in a progression of education, training and facilitation within entrepreneurial education that begins with developing enterprising behaviour (Lackéus, 2015; Blenker et al., 2011, Gibb, 2008; Rasmussen and Nybye, 2013, Mahieu, 2006). The progression model approach may be applied within an education system through both formal and informal education provision. Such models are however rare since the main focus among researchers has been higher education initiatives and programs (Lackéus, 2015).

According to Garavan and O'Cinneide (1994), enterprising behaviour is a broader conceptualisation of entrepreneurship whereby the educational effort is directed towards developing self-reliant and enterprising people. Blenker et al. (2006, p. 57), noted that changing the education focus from entrepreneurship to enterprising behaviour has:

> *Huge implications for the appropriate pedagogical and didactical approaches – a learning approach as opposed to a teaching approach is required where the learner is invited to be an active and equal partner in the learning process.*

A teaching approach may be linked to positivists' theories of knowledge and education which are based on the premise that knowledge itself is objective and can be acquired (Bodner, 1986). In positivist approaches, knowledge is seen as rigid and inflexible input and transferred to the learner as a passive recipient and consumer of knowledge (Izquierdo, 2008; Loebler, 2006). Conversely, Beach (1980, p. 22) defined learning as *'the human process by which skills, knowledge, habits and attitudes are acquired and altered in such a way that behaviour is modified'*. Honey and Mumford (2006, p.1)

proposed that learning happens "*when people can demonstrate that they know something that they did not know before and/or when they can do something they could not do before".*

These definitions of learning emphasise a subsequent and consequent change in behaviour, highlighting the social aspects of learning rather than viewing it merely as a cognitive process (Wenger, 2009). As a result, in addition to knowing something cognitively and understanding it, the learning process is associated with a change in actions (Guirdham and Tyler 1992; Gibb 1993).

Learning to 'be enterprising' is typically experiential and such approaches reside within social constructionist theories of knowledge and education (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Gibb, 2011). Social constructionist theories perceive learning as a self-responsible process of the learner who is actively constructing knowledge (Kryro 2005; Loebler, 2006). Efforts to support the learning of enterprising behaviour aim to encourage learners to feel, think and act like an entrepreneur (Gibb, 1993; 2001). According to Gibb (2011), achieving these outcomes requires a paradigm shift from a traditional didactic teaching technique of imparting knowledge to a learner-focused, experiential, action learning approach.

Recent studies in entrepreneurial education sought to build insight into the dynamics and mechanisms of learning entrepreneurship (e.g. Lobler, 2006) and therefore contribute to the dissemination of best practice and experiences of entrepreneurial education interventions (Bager et al., 2010). These studies identified different approaches within entrepreneurial education (philosophy, theories, didactics and pedagogy) as the independent variable and different types of modules, courses and programmes as the dependent variable (Bechard and Gregoire, 2005; Blenker et al., 2014). These studies

provided insight into the development of entrepreneurial education and an understanding of practice and learning outcomes. Using insight from the field of education, several studies (Alberti et al, 2004; Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Maritz and Brown, 2013, Maritz, 2017) focused on the development of education frameworks to support the design of entrepreneurial education initiatives. These studies were incrementally developed and identified several constructs within an education framework to guide practice including: (i) ontology, (ii) didactics (theories, educator role, pedagogy, anticipated outcomes), and (iii) context.

Table 3.1 - Framework Supporting the Learning of Enterprising Behaviour

Heading	Detailed Criteria	Academic Literature
Ontology Entrepreneurship Theory	Broad understanding of entrepreneurship as 'enterprising behaviour', supporting learners to develop ideas and opportunities in a variety of contexts	Gibb (1993;2002) Blenker et al. (2011; 2012)
Didactics		
Educational Theory	Education approaches facilitate individuals learning about themselves as enterprising individuals acting upon ideas and opportunities. Underpinned by social constructionist theories of education including experiential learning and situated learning.	Wenger (2009) Kolb (1984) Blenker et al. (2008) Gibb (2011)
Educator Role	Facilitator, Helper/Coach. Innovative teaching approaches. Ability to engage with communities to source practical contexts and opportunities for learning	Hannon (2005; 2006) QAA (2012)
Pedagogy	Build upon a priori knowledge, skills and experiences. Active, experiential, subjective, student centred.	Jones and Iredale (2010;2014) Blenker (2011;2012) Gibb et al. (2014)
Anticipated Outcomes	Self -efficacy, personal development and growth	Bandura (1997; 2007), Blenker et al. (2015)
Context	Individuals differ in ability and learning requirements. Differences in Environment and educator also requires consideration	Lave and Wenger (1991) Wenger (1998) Penaluna et al (2012) Edwards and Muir (2012) Matlay (2005)

Source: Adapted from Fayolle and Gailly (2008); Maritz and Brown (2013).

Adopting the theoretical constructs from the education framework of Fayolle and Gailly (2008) and Maritz and Brown (2013) the constructs are utilised as a guide, which draws upon the literature to deepen the understanding of learning enterprising behaviour. (Table 3.1). As summarised in Table 3.1, it is identified in the literature that learning enterprising behaviour resides within a broader ontology or understanding of entrepreneurship (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008). From the perspective of didactics (teaching and learning), studies identified the learning of enterprising behaviour is underpinned by social constructionist theories of education with a focus on situated and experiential learning (Blenker et al, 2008; Gibb, 2011). In social constructionist approaches, the educator adopts a facilitator or helper role and identifies practical contexts and opportunities for learning (Hannon, 2005; 2006). The learning of enterprising behaviour is characterised by experiential, active and student-centred learning (Jones and Iredale 2010;2014) with increased self-efficacy and personal development as anticipated outcomes (Blenker et al., 2015). Various studies identified the consideration of context with regards to: the learner; the educator; the programme and the location of the learning environment supporting enterprising behaviour (Penaluna et al., 2012).

In the progression model approach to entrepreneurial education the foundation element is premised on the broad definition of entrepreneurship with initiatives focused on supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. These initiatives are underpinned by active and experiential pedagogies. Anticipated outcomes include enhanced creativity, engagement and self-efficacy (Lackéus, 2013). Subsequent phases of the progression model adopt a narrower definition of entrepreneurship focused on the development of entrepreneurial behaviour. Such approaches may be more skills based and underpinning entrepreneurship theory is more explicit. Research in entrepreneurial education is

growing internationally with practice evidenced across the education continuum from pre-school to adult learning, plus there is a significant growth in entrepreneurial education in Higher Education (Fayolle and Kyro, 2008). The next section moves to explore approaches to learning enterprising behaviour within HEIS.

3.6 Learning Enterprising Behavior within HEIs

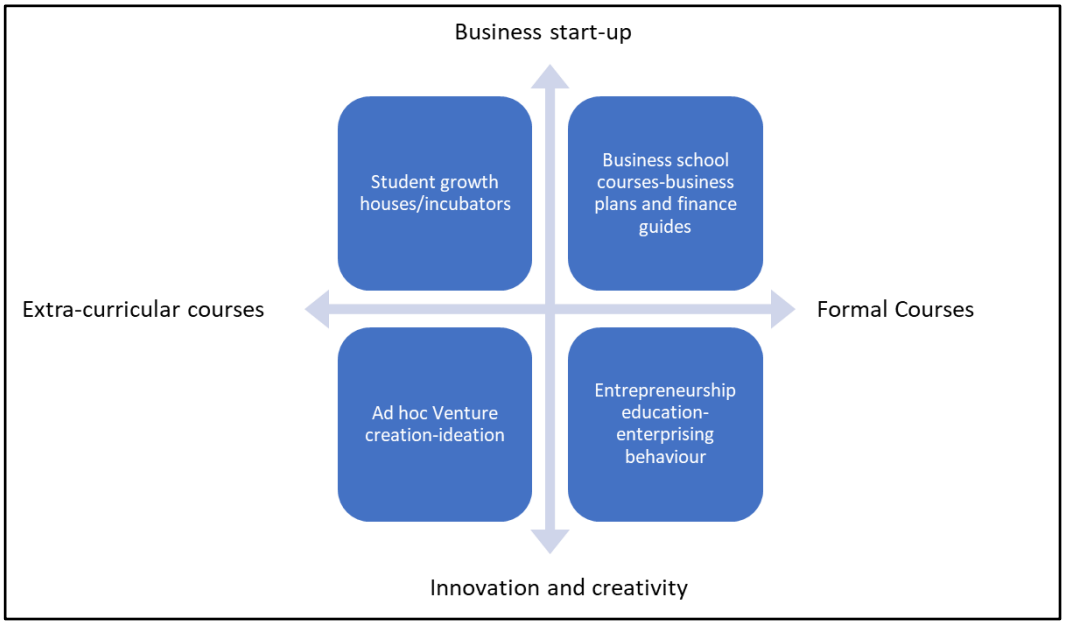
According to Kuratko (2014) the number of colleges and HEIs offering entrepreneurial education has grown from a handful in the 1970s to thousands across the globe today. The role of HEIs in supporting entrepreneurial education is heavily influenced by public policy and local entrepreneurial ecosystems. According to the European Commission (2008), the aim of entrepreneurial education at third level should be to develop entrepreneurial capacities and behaviours that benefit society. Hytti and Kuopusjarvi (2004) highlighted the relevance of entrepreneurial activity to economic development, while Taatila (2010) pointed to evidence that academically educated entrepreneurs are more important in developing regional economies than entrepreneurs with a lower level of education. Minniti and Levesque (2008) suggested that it is generally recognised that academic education provides people with the opportunity to develop additional skills and exposes them to new developments, thus resulting in further innovation and creativity. Price (2013) illustrated that 21st century students must be capable of developing an enterprising career regardless of any start-up aspirations, identifying the enterprising skills necessary for a changing globalised world.

Feld (2012) identified HEIs as being an excellent resource for developing and supporting talent and human capital in entrepreneurial ecosystems. As a relatively new concept, an entrepreneurial university ecosystem (EUE) is understood to offer various

advantages for higher educational institutions to establish in terms of what is described as creativity, productivity and innovation on campuses (Fetters et al., 2010; Graham, 2014). Rideout and Gray (2013) suggested that the key components of a university-based entrepreneurial ecosystem (U-BEE) included entrepreneurial education, engagement with alumni entrepreneurs, incubators, seed funding, scholarly research and other support services (e.g. technology transfer and prototype development). Brush (2014) proposed that the concept of an entrepreneurship education ecosystem is a central component of the UBEE, outlining the dynamic interactions of networks and actors which support entrepreneurial education (Brush, 2014).

Robinson and Blenker (2014) outlined the different kinds of entrepreneurial education initiatives in higher education. As illustrated in Figure 3.3, the axis left-to-right demonstrates teaching and learning activities on a spectrum from informal extra-

Figure 3.3 - Entrepreneurial Education in Higher Education



Source: Robinson and Blenker (2014)

curricular activity on the left to formal teaching course on the right. Initially, entrepreneurial education courses in higher education were based in business schools focusing on business start-up, but more recently courses can be found in medicine, the sciences and arts and humanities, broadening the relevance of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial learning also takes place in student incubators and growth houses and through participation in competitions and other activities. Pittway et al (2015) highlighted the contribution of student clubs that enhance entrepreneurial learning and supports the development of entrepreneurial activity.

Reviewing the literature, it is evident that the scale and scope of entrepreneurial education in HEIs has expanded from a narrow definition of entrepreneurship (often centred around traditional business school competencies) to approaches with a broader focus on engendering entrepreneurial competencies and enterprising behaviour within students. Jamieson (1984) made a distinction between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training. In the contemporary literature this distinction has been developed further and it is now generally accepted that there are three distinct approaches to entrepreneurial education in HEIs – learning 'about' entrepreneurship, training 'for' entrepreneurship and learning 'through' being involved in entrepreneurial processes (Pittaway and Cope, 2007; Rae, 2010). Teaching 'about' entrepreneurship involves theoretically orientated courses which increase awareness of entrepreneurship by exploring its history and theory. Teaching 'for' entrepreneurship means an occupationally orientated approach aimed at encouraging students to consider entrepreneurship in their future through business plan development and associated skills. Teaching 'through' entrepreneurship means a process based and often experiential approach where students go through an actual entrepreneurial learning process.

When the aim of entrepreneurial education is primarily to increase an individual's general knowledge 'about' entrepreneurship, courses on the history of entrepreneurship theory dominate. Students may be introduced to the classics of entrepreneurship theory, which normally incorporates three elements – economic approaches (e.g. Schumpeter, 1934 and Kirzner (1973); personal traits and individual approaches – (e.g. McClelland (1961) and more contemporary theories of entrepreneurship such as the individual opportunity nexus (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). If the definition of entrepreneurship is adopted in the narrow sense as associated with a particular form of business activity (the creation of a firm) then the education effort is directed toward stimulating entrepreneurship in the form of new venture creation and the focus in on business renewal in an economic sense (Blenker et al, 2008). This teaching 'for' entrepreneurship approach, is often centred on improving a student's ability to write a business plan, focusing on business ideas generation, business planning and the new venture creation process (Jones and Iredale, 2014). In this approach, performing entrepreneurship requires a large proportion of fundamental business knowledge and skills. Central entrepreneurial problems (e.g. how to discover opportunities, evaluate the attractiveness of industries, marshal resources and create a competitive advantage) may be discussed on the basis of more general economics and management theories (e.g. network theory, consumer behaviour theory, industrial organisation theory, game theory, agency theory, transactions cost theory or resource-based theory) (Fiet, 2000).

Some contemporary approaches in entrepreneurial education focus on learning 'through' entrepreneurship. This approach normally leans on the broader definition of entrepreneurship as 'enterprising behaviour' and can be integrated into other subjects in education, connecting entrepreneurial characteristics, processes and experiences to the

core subject (Lackéus, 2015). In the 'through' approach, individuals are encouraged to reflect on their identity, their networks and competencies and resources, and with this understanding are encouraged through experiential learning to act on their ideas. The distinction of 'about', 'for' and 'through' in entrepreneurial education is often described as competing or conflicting approaches that an educator must choose from. Recent studies adopted a pragmatic approach combining elements of all three categories in the development of an enterprising behaviour programme (Blenker et al, 2015). The syllabi and elements of course development is illustrated in Case Study 3.1.

Case Study 3.1 - Enterprising Behaviour Course - Aarhus University, Denmark

The Enterprising Behaviour course was designed as a Summer School for postgraduate students. The programme entitled "Combining Academic Curiosity with Value Creation – A Process Course in Innovation and Entrepreneurship" adopted a broad interpretation of entrepreneurship. Course participants were drawn from a variety of disciplines. The course duration was 10 days. The course was process based adopting an experiential pedagogy. Course elements included:

1. Entrepreneurial identity construction. Students work with an initial understanding of who an entrepreneur is to construct themselves as entrepreneurs

2. Effectuation from everyday practice. Students learn to construction opportunities on the basis of the resources in their everyday life.

3. Opportunity formation from personal disharmonies. Students learn to be sensitive towards disharmonies and problems that serve as the foundation of their entrepreneurial opportunity.

4. Validating Opportunities. Students learn to examine if their particular opportunities are of relevance to others

5. Mobilising Stakeholders around opportunities. Students learn to involve stakeholders with relevant resources to co-construct opportunities

6. Prototyping & Business modelling. Students learn ways to explore and describe their opportunity to enable communication with other stakeholders.

Outcomes – The course made it possible for students to recognise their own entrepreneurial competencies and create insight in themselves that enabled them to build self-efficacy in ways where they can combine their personal and academic background to make changes for themselves and potentially society.

Source: Blenker et al. (2015)

The learning of enterprising behaviour builds upon affective, conative as well as the cognitive aspects of learning (Gibb et al., 2014). Tassone and Eppink (2016) refer to this as a 'whole person' approach to learning, implying that students learn across multiple domains (Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes) (Bloom et al 1956, Krathwhol et al, 1964). Such approaches represent a more holistic personal development, teaching foundation entrepreneurial principles such as coping with uncertainty, opportunity identification, creating, decision-making, developing empathy, business design, and leveraging failure. The combination of these elements is value creation at a personal level and potentially economic and social level (Neck and Corbett, 2018).

Moving from the cognitive teacher-centred to the experiential student-centred approaches may be facilitated through experiential pedagogical methods. According to Gibb et al.(2014) a variety of approaches are now utilised in entrepreneurial education in higher education including storytelling, drama, debate, case studies, games, projects, simulations, and other hands-on activities. Many courses now include role models including local entrepreneurs, business advisers and alumni who make contribution to curricular and extra-curricular programmes (QAA, 2012). As observed from Case Study 3.1, entrepreneurial education has adopted a number of models and theoretical frameworks from the entrepreneurship domain and other domains including: Effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001; Sarasvathy and Dew, 2005; Sarasvathy and Venkataraman, 2011); Business Model Canvas (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010); Design Thinking (Johansson-Sköldberg et al., 2013); Lean Start-up (Ries, 2010); and Appreciative Inquiry (Blenker et al, 2011). These facilitate how students learn through experiential and existential aspects of enterprise.

Although the research field of entrepreneurial education in HEIs has broadened in the interpretation of entrepreneurship, the methods for assessment and measuring impact are predominantly modelled around venture creation or business start-up. In early research on the topic, Block & Stumpf developed a framework with several relevant evaluation criteria for measuring the impact of entrepreneurial education. In the list, nearly half of the criteria concerned venture creation and business management (Block and Stumpf, 1992). Vesper and Gartner listed 18 evaluation criteria with evaluation of impacts on society, venture creation and innovations in the top five (Vesper and Gartner, 1997). In 2002, the UK's National Centre for Graduate Entrepreneurship introduced an entrepreneurial learning outcomes framework. Out of the eight criteria, five focused on venture creation and start-up processes (Gibb, 2002a). Fayolle et al. (2006) built a model based on planned behaviour to measure students' intentions towards entrepreneurial activity with a broader approach, stating that the goal of entrepreneurship education is not exclusively focused on the immediate creation of new businesses (Fayolle et al., 2006). Penaluna and Penaluna (2009) suggested a framework to assess creativity in entrepreneurial learning that operates with an understanding of entrepreneurship as 'applied creativity'. Their model focused on elements of processes included in an entrepreneurial learning process without defining a specific end goal. Two literature reviews from two different ten-year periods support this identified pattern in the literature (Gorman et al., 1997; Pittaway and Cope, 2007). In one of these articles, it is pointed out that research on this topic needs to be contextualized into a more holistic approach over time and with a systemic view in order to measure impact (Pittaway and Cope, 2007). Jensen (2014) introduced a holistic person or 'whole person' perspective to the research field which incorporated both time and space dimensions in addition to an assessment of

the education intervention. This approach was identified as suitable for the broader interpretation of entrepreneurship.

The tremendous growth in entrepreneurial education in higher education is reflected in the wide array of literature and research on the topic. A recent review of the variety of practice and scope within the field concluded that 'there is no best way in entrepreneurial education' in higher education (Neck and Corbett, 2018). Rather it may be considered along a continuum similar to the progression model concept explored earlier embracing the variety in programme goals, student populations, university resources, faculty and anticipated outcomes. A significant body of research and academic literature is focused on the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour in HEIs. The growing body of literature focused on learning enterprising behaviour reflects the broadening of entrepreneurial education with an experiential and existential focused on learning 'through' entrepreneurship.

3.7 Learning Enterprising Behaviour Outside HEIs

It is well recognised that education and training opportunities play a key role in cultivating future entrepreneurs and in developing the abilities of existing entrepreneurs to grow their business to greater levels of success (Henry et al, 2003). Feld (2012) identified the role of HEIs within an entrepreneurial ecosystem in developing human capital but identified that they are just one element of a supportive ecosystem. Spigel (2016) identified various government and non-government organisations within an entrepreneurial ecosystem that provide education and training in addition to HEIs. For example, the Network for Teaching Entrepreneurship (NFTE) which originated in the

USA provides training and support in entrepreneurship for young people through formal and informal education in youth clubs and summer schools (Silander et al., 2015).

The provision of entrepreneurial education and training for adults requires consideration around adult education and learning. It is generally agreed that there are three broad categories of adult education and learning: (1) formal accredited learning in education and training centres (leads to certification); (2) non-formal which is not accredited; and (3) informal which takes places in contexts outside a specific learning environment. Theorists suggest that adult learning requires different guidelines and teaching philosophies that are theoretically derived and distinct from how young people learn (Knowles, 1989; Merriam, 1993; 2001; Pratt, 1993). Knowles (1984) theory of andragogy was developed to further understand adult learning. Relevant learning theories in adult and non-formal education revolve around action learning (Revans, 1982), experiential learning and constructivism (Kolb, 1984; Papert and Harel, 1991) and project based learning (Wood, 2003). Andragogy makes the following assumptions about the design of learning: (1) adults need to know why they need to learn something; (2) adults need to learn experientially; (3) adults approach learning as problem-solving; and (4) adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value (Knowles et al, 2015). Andragogy identifies that adult learning requires different approaches, this is particularly relevant within the non-formal and informal setting.

Lichtenstein and Lyons (2001) argued that it is important for service providers to recognise that entrepreneurs come to entrepreneurship with different levels of skills and therefore each entrepreneur requires a different ‘game plan’ for developing his or her skills. In a review of the literature, Cooney (2012a) identified that the skillsets required for entrepreneurial activity included: entrepreneurship skills, technical skills and

management skills. There are varying approaches to education and training within an entrepreneurial ecosystem outside higher education HEIs. Table 3.2 captures some exemplars of these approaches as drawn from the literature

Table 3.2 - Entrepreneurial Education and Training outside HEIs

Offering	Description
Start Your Own Business (SYOB) Course.	Offered to potential and nascent entrepreneurs. A typical start your own business course may include business management elements such as: Marketing Tax, law and insurance Financial planning (pricing, costing) Sources of funding Sales and service Basic bookkeeping Developing your Business Plan
Social Enterprise Development Courses	Offered to potential and nascent social entrepreneurs. Similar to SYOB course. Offered to individuals who seek to create significant social impact through initiatives and enterprises. Courses adapted to the distinctive features of social enterprise development.
F**K Up Club /Funerals for Failed Business	Through peer learning, successful start-ups, and VCs share past failures that ultimately led to success. The focus of the event is to gather together in memory of past dead start-ups, hear stories, learn lessons and gain insight.
Hackathons	Hackathon's typically involve individuals from multiple backgrounds working together on short term projects. The aim is to inspire, enthuse and ignite an innovative style of thinking in its participants, and help to create concepts which can create social, cultural or economic value. The term combines the words hack and marathon, where is hack is used in the sense of exploratory and investigative programming owing to the original digital development. Hackathons have extended beyond technology companies into a wider range of sectors.
Accelerator Programmes	Designed for potential and existing entrepreneurs to develop and grow their business. Training, mentorship and financial support. Maybe fully remote (Pioneers app) or blended (Y Combinator).

Source: Adapted from Briscoe and Mulligan (2015); Nolte, 2019; Conway (2008)

As observed from Table 3.2, Provision may occur through traditional classroom style training workshops, online (through MOOCs (massive online learning courses)) or through blended learning approaches. Approaches vary across the spectrum from traditional 'instruction' towards an experiential learning methodology, utilising action orientated, mentoring (preferably within field) and group-work approaches (Cooney, 2012a).

The available academic literature on entrepreneurial education and training outside HEIs is predominantly focused on the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour underpinned by the narrower paradigm of entrepreneurship, as new venture creation or business development (Nolte, 2019; Briscoe and Mulligan, 2015; Conway, 2008, Cooney, 2012a). There is a paucity of academic literature on the learning of enterprising behaviour in the broader interpretation of entrepreneurship outside HEIs. This analysis corresponds with the findings within section 3.4 which identified that academic literature on entrepreneurial ecosystems is mainly focused on the 'typical' entrepreneur in a new venture creation context or high value-added venture context (Stam, 2015; Roundy 2016).

3.8 Learning Enterprising Behaviour in Disadvantaged Communities

Until the 1980s, adult males were the primary focus of research relating to entrepreneurship (Watkins and Watkins, 1983). Other profiles or communities were so peripheral to studies that they remained silent in the literature (Galloway and Cooney, 2012). Stevenson and Lundström (2001) argued that the use of inclusion policy was a potential solution to the marginalisation experienced by minority and disadvantaged communities, and they distinguished the different ways a government can stimulate entrepreneurship amongst under-represented groups. Their proposed targeted policy

measures included creating enterprise centres, promotion activities, entrepreneurship awards, counselling, training and advisory support. It was suggested that through these policy initiatives, minority and disadvantaged communities could be better equipped to overcome the entrepreneurship challenges they endure which are different from those experienced by mainstream society (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019).

In recent years, The OECD 'Missing Entrepreneurs' reports (2013, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019), identified several under-represented and disadvantaged groups in entrepreneurial activity as belonging to the following communities: women, youth, seniors, unemployed and immigrants. These reports sought to identify the key challenges faced by potential and nascent entrepreneurs offering recommendations that policy makers could undertake to help reduce existing challenges for 'missing entrepreneurs'. This has led to the growth of inclusive entrepreneurship policies which recognise that developing entrepreneurial potential within disadvantaged groups requires specific tailored initiatives that are sensitive to their needs. Tailored entrepreneurial education and training is a key feature of inclusive provision.

The recent OECD 'missing entrepreneurs' report identified that the provision of tailored entrepreneurial training and support is increasing as follows(OECD, 2019, p. 37):

- Young people (including NEETs): Tailored financial and skills development programmes are available for youth outside the formal education system in most EU member states (e.g. Enterprise Bootcamp for youth https://www.bootstrapcharity.com/enterprise
- Women: About half of EU members states offer training or business development support tailored to women

- Unemployed: Approximately half of EU member states offer entrepreneurship training to the unemployed
- Immigrants: Tailored entrepreneurship programmes for immigrants varies across the EU and the non-government sector plays an important role, especially in refugee populations.

A recent review of the academic literature identified that tailored entrepreneurial training and support is mainly focused on supporting the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) in disadvantaged communities (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019). Higher education outreach approaches which support the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour in disadvantaged communities are discussed in Chapter 4.

There is evidence of emerging practice in disadvantaged communities which support the learning of enterprising behaviour in the broader interpretation of entrepreneurship (e.g. "REACT - Reinforcing Entrepreneurship in Adults", www.reactproject.online). The goal of this project is to nurture an enterprising capability in disadvantaged communities addressing social inclusion (additional exemplars are explored in Chapter 4). This reflects recent policy (OECD, 2016) that suggested that disadvantaged communities could benefit from education and training approaches that focus on the broader development of enterprising behaviour. This recognises that disadvantaged communities may not have the capacity to start a business but may benefit from the personal development aspects of entrepreneurial education.

The provision of community-based entrepreneurial education and training may differ from general adult education provision due to the distinctive ethos and the methodologies of community education. Connolly (2010, p.126) highlighted that a central tenet of community education is that it "*builds capacity through learning*". A capacity

building approach recognises that marginalised and disadvantaged communities have many capacities which may not be recognisable to themselves or those outside their community. In addition to the considerations of adult learning, models of community-based learning often adopt critical pedagogic approaches such as the education theory of Freire (1972). Whilst Freire's education theory has application at all levels, it is particularly relevant for communities that are marginalised or disadvantaged. Freire's theory of education is premised on the growth and development of human potential and suggested that true knowledge and expertise already exists within people. Freire contrasted this approach with what he called the 'banking concept' where knowledge is perceived as '*the property of the teacher rather than a medium evoking the critical reflection of both the teacher and the student*" (Freire, 1970 p.80). The community centred approach uses the lived experiences of participants as the starting point and the subjective experience of the learner is considered vital and transformative (Connolly, 2010). Berglund and Johansson (2007) adopted the Freirean perspective to entrepreneurship and regional development in the development of a project (DiE) to foster entrepreneurial capacity in disadvantaged and vulnerable communities.

Despite emerging evidence of practice in the broader development of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities, there is little evidence of academic literature supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour (broad) in disadvantaged communities. In addressing this paucity of research, a recent conceptual study by this researcher (O'Brien et al, 2019) argued that the conceptualisation of entrepreneurship should be broadened to incorporate enterprising behaviour which is not limited to foster the creation of new firms but also encourages enhancing self-efficacy and improving the ability of individuals, groups and communities to take control of their own life and situation. For

the first time, the conceptual study identified the congruence between the active learning pedagogy within enterprise education (Jones and Iredale, 2010) and learning theories in adult and community education (Freire, 1972; Knowles, 1984, Connolly, 2010). Yet, despite the acknowledgement that an aim of enterprise education is to "*break the cycle of the culture of poverty and to bring about socio-economic and community regeneration*" (Jones and Iredale, 2014), very few studies explicitly challenge the traditional role of universities in supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities (Wang, 2020). Through empirical study this thesis sets out to address this gap in knowledge.

3.9 Conclusion

Developing an understanding of entrepreneurship and its relevance to economic and societal growth and development has been evolving since Cantillon first introduced the concept of 'the entrepreneur' nearly 300 years ago. The phenomenon of entrepreneurship has long been viewed in an economic context, although more recently the perspective of entrepreneurship has broadened where it now may be viewed as a way of behaving that has relevance to all parts of society. In parallel, the scale and scope of entrepreneurial education in HEIs has expanded from a narrow definition of entrepreneurship often centred around traditional business school competencies and new venture creation (entrepreneurial behaviour) to approaches with a broader focus supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour.

Learning enterprising behaviour facilitates 'whole person' development, supporting the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes through entrepreneurial processes in a variety of contexts. Such approaches may lead to value creation at a

personal level and potentially also at economic and social levels. In essence, learning enterprising behaviour supports individuals to identify and pursue opportunities which is necessary in times of uncertainty and rapid change. Drawing insight from the field of education, entrepreneurial education studies have adapted education frameworks to inform the design of entrepreneurial education initiatives. These frameworks identify key components for consideration in programme development including ontology, didactics and context. These components will be guided by programme goals and education objectives.

Arising from additional and distinctive challenges that disadvantaged communities experience in developing entrepreneurial potential, tailored education and training is required. Tailored provision builds upon the capacity already present in disadvantaged communities. Expanding their role within entrepreneurial ecosystems, HEIs have developed and designed tailored entrepreneurial training programmes for disadvantaged communities. Yet, the academic literature on tailored provision for disadvantage communities is focused on supporting the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour in disadvantaged communities (narrow). Arguably, the concept of enterprising behaviour (broad) is more relevant to disadvantaged communities, yet no studies have explored the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities or how HEIs might assist such development. Chapter 4 considers the additional and distinctive challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities in engaging in enterprising behaviour and considers how HEIs could support them.

Chapter 4. Disadvantaged Communities and Enterprising Behaviour

4.1 Introduction

The preceding Chapters Two and Three reviewed the literature and provided insight and understanding on HEI community engagement and learning enterprising behaviour. This chapter is a contextual chapter exploring disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour. As highlighted in Chapter Three, despite emerging practice which supports the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities predominantly by non-government organisations (NGOs), there is an absence of academic literature regarding disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour. The identification of disadvantaged communities is guided by a series of reports from the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) called 'The Missing Entrepreneurs' (OECD, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019). In these reports, the 'missing entrepreneurs' have been identified as belonging to the following communities: women, youth, seniors unemployed, immigrants and the disabled community. These communities each have additional and distinctive challenges in developing their enterprising capabilities that have yet to be fundamentally addressed through the entrepreneurial ecosystem. In recent times, HEIs have begun to address this situation through the development of tailored entrepreneurial education and training outreach programmes for disadvantaged communities (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011; Kingma, 2014; O'Brien and Cooney, 2019, Cooney 2009). To date, much of the academic literature identifies how HEIs can support the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) in disadvantaged communities, with an absence of discussion of how HEIs might support the learning of enterprising behaviour in its broader context in disadvantaged communities. Addressing this identified gap in knowledge and the academic literature, this chapter culminates with a conceptual framework highlighting key considerations for HEIs in supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities.

The chapter begins broadly by exploring definitions of disadvantage, deprivation and social exclusion in communities. The focus then moves to identifying communities that are disadvantaged in engaging in enterprising behaviour and explores the additional and distinctive challenges they face. Inclusive entrepreneurship policy developments are explored which recognise that developing entrepreneurial potential within disadvantaged groups requires specific tailored initiatives that are sensitive to their needs. Tailored programmes offered by HEIs which support the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour in disadvantaged communities are then explored. In the final part of this chapter, the findings from all three literature review chapters are integrated into a new conceptual framework that provides key considerations for HEIs in supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. Given there is little research regarding how HEIs might activate more inclusive entrepreneurial education this framework expands existing knowledge and sets the foundation for the next phase of this research to analyse and assess empirically the constructs developed.

4.2 Defining Disadvantaged Communities

The term ‘disadvantaged’ can have many interpretations and finding a common understanding can be challenging. Traditionally, disadvantage has been thought of as poverty related to inadequate income or limited economic resources (McLachlan et al., 2013). However, poverty has been criticised for its narrow focus on a single monetary measure and failing to capture the impact of disadvantage on quality of life. More recently, disadvantage has been understood as a multi-dimensional concept with significant overlap between the term disadvantage, poverty, deprivation and social exclusion (Braveman and Gruskin, 2003; Skinner et al, 2008; Montoya, 2014).

Deprivation is a broader perspective that considers disadvantage to exist when people miss out on essential goods and services needed to achieve an acceptable standard of living (McLachlan et al, 2013). Deprivation may therefore be inclusive of low income, but it can also relate to other factors such as restricted access to education and health services.

Sen (1999) and Nussbaum (2000) defined disadvantaged as a restriction of people's capabilities. The capability approach was concerned with people's ability to engage in actions and activities that have value and meaning to them. A defining characteristic of this approach is its scope, it moved beyond economic matters to include the whole realm of human experience as basic capabilities which are relevant to all people (Nussbaum, 2000). Building upon the capabilities approach, in recent years, disadvantage has been viewed through the lens of social exclusion. From the social exclusion perspective, disadvantage is understood to occur when people are prevented from participating in the social, educational, political, employment and civic opportunities available in society (United Nations, 2016). According to Kummitah (2017), throughout history, social exclusion as a practice has always been present. The contemporary understanding of social exclusion emerged in the 1970s and its origins were linked to increased deprivation and marginalisation in Europe (especially in France) due to the failure of the welfare state (Saith, 2001). Initially, the term was adopted and developed in a Western context, yet in contemporary society it has been utilised in nearly all national contexts (Haan, 2001).

Multi-dimensional frameworks of disadvantage such as deprivation and social exclusion highlight that disadvantage may manifest itself in many ways and can be

considered from different angles (Valentine, 2016). In acknowledging the multi-dimensional of disadvantage, the European Commission (2004, p.10) identified that:

> *Social exclusion (disadvantage) is a process whereby certain individuals are pushed to the edge of society and prevented from participating fully by virtue of their poverty, or lack of basic competencies and lifelong learning opportunities, or as a result of discrimination. This distances them from job, income and education opportunities as well as societal and community networks and activities. They have little access to power and decision-making bodies and thus often feel powerless and unable to take control over decisions that affect their daily lives.*

According to the United Nations (2016), individuals and communities may be excluded from many domains of life − social, economic, political, civic and spatial − and the salience of each domain depends strongly on the country and local contexts as well as on the stage of a person's life course. Conceptualised as social exclusion, disadvantage is understood as both multidimensional and context dependent. Poverty, deprivation and social exclusion offer complementary ways of viewing disadvantage and together cover what is generally understood as social disadvantage (Saunders et al, 2007). Vinson (2007, p.1) defined social disadvantage as a "*range of difficulties that block life opportunities and which prevent people from participating fully in society*". Social disadvantage may be correlated to a number of factors including race, income, employment status, social class, geographic location, education, religion, and political affiliation (United Nations, 2016).

It is increasingly common in society that individuals experiencing disadvantage are spatially concentrated, with the spatial concentration further reinforcing exclusionary

processes (Wacquant, 1999). According to Saunders and Wong (2014), when people experience disadvantage in a disadvantaged community or locality, effects can be exacerbated and lead to pockets of concentrated and persistent disadvantage. According to Edwards (2005), community disadvantage emerges from the interplay between the characteristics of the residents in a community (e.g. employment and education levels), in addition to the effects of the social and environmental context in which they exist (social capital, role models, opportunities).

Disadvantage may not be as simple as it was once assumed to be, contemporary theories have moved beyond an understanding of disadvantage being equated solely with economic factors. More frequently, disadvantage is understood from a broader perspective as social exclusion which is complex, multi-dimensional and context dependent. In this study, disadvantage is understood as social disadvantage or social exclusion. This study adapts the United Nations (2016) definition of social exclusion from an individual to a community context.

Social exclusion (disadvantage) is defined as a state in which individuals (communities) are unable to participate fully in economic, social, political and cultural life, as well as the process leading to and sustaining such a state.

This understanding of disadvantage as social exclusion highlights the multidimensional and contextual aspects of disadvantage. Defined in this way social exclusion describes the lack of participation in or exclusion from economic, political, cultural, civic or social life. In this way, as noted by Levitas et al., (2007) broadening the definition of disadvantage beyond economic terms takes a more holistic view of human development.

Social inclusion, the converse of social exclusion is the affirmative action to change the circumstances and habits that lead to or have led to social disadvantage.

According to Boushey et al. (2007), social inclusion simultaneously incorporates multiple dimensions of well-being. It is achieved when individuals have the opportunity and resources necessary to participate fully in economic, social and cultural activities, which are considered the societal norm. Social inclusion policies have been developed in a number of jurisdictions throughout the world and is a key feature of the United Nations (UN) 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Social inclusion policies are now common across all EU countries supporting a shift towards a more inclusive society (David and Hamburg, 2013; Hamburg and David, 2017). A key feature of EU social inclusion policy is addressing social exclusion through innovation and social innovation (BEPA, 2010). Although the number of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion fell by 3.1 million between 2008 and 2017, the EU remains far from the Europe 2020 target of reducing this number by 20 million by 2020 (Eurostat, 2020). The latest figures indicated that there are currently 110[4] million people, or 20 % of the EU population, at risk of poverty or social exclusion. (Eurostat, 2020). Corresponding figures in the USA indicated that there are an estimated 43.1 million Americans at risk of poverty or social exclusion (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Addressing this concerning social situation requires innovative approaches and it has been suggested that inclusive entrepreneurship may be part of the solution.

4.3 Identifying Disadvantaged Communities in terms of Enterprising Behaviour

As identified in Chapter Three, despite emerging practice there is an absence of academic research and literature related to disadvantaged communities and enterprising

[4] It is anticipated that these figures will rise significantly as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic (UN, 2020).

behaviour. There is a significant body of academic literature on disadvantaged communities and entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow). Thus, the term ‘entrepreneurial behaviour’ will be utilised as a proxy for the term enterprising behaviour in the absence of literature and knowledge in the area of disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour. As with the understanding and definition of terminology on disadvantage, finding a common understanding of disadvantage relevant to entrepreneurial behaviour can be challenging.

The term ‘minority’ entrepreneur is used significantly in the entrepreneurship literature, its meaning can be varied as sometimes it is used to reference immigrants or ethnicity. More generally the term ‘minority’ is used to describe people from communities who are under-represented in terms of entrepreneurial behaviour. There is an underlying assumption within entrepreneurial ecosystem frameworks that all entrepreneurs have equal access to resources and support, but evidence suggests that this may not always be the case (Brush et al, 2019). DeClercq and Honig (2011, p.354) identified disadvantage communities in entrepreneurial behaviour as:

> *those individuals who have difficulty integrating into the marketplace and typically are located outside the mainstream of social and institutional support for entrepreneurship.*

This definition includes both nascent and potential entrepreneurs and implicitly highlights the challenges that disadvantaged communities endure in entrepreneurial ecosystems.

As introduced in Chapter Three, in recent years, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has published a series of reports called ‘The Missing Entrepreneurs’ (OECD, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019). These reports have sought to identify the key challenges faced by potential and nascent entrepreneurs from

minority and disadvantaged communities. In identifying the additional and distinctive challenges experienced by the 'missing entrepreneurs' in developing entrepreneurial potential, the reports offered recommendations for policy makers on developing more inclusive entrepreneurial ecosystems. In these reports, the 'missing entrepreneurs' have been identified as belonging to the following communities: women; youth; seniors; unemployed; ethnic minorities and immigrants; and disabled people. Galloway and Cooney (2012) highlighted the adversities facing 'silent minorities' and identified gay, disabled, NEETs (Not in Education, Employment or Training) and ex-offender communities as also being disadvantaged in terms of entrepreneurial behaviour. Wood et al. (2012) identified eight 'minorities in entrepreneurship', which included indigenous entrepreneurs (e.g. Aborigine, Māori) amongst those communities that have already been mentioned above. Recent studies by Cowell et al (2018), Brush et al. (2019) and McAdam (2018) identified that minority and disadvantaged communities are under-represented in entrepreneurial ecosystems. This study adopts the definition of disadvantaged communities from the OECD 'Missing Entrepreneurs' reports. Thus, in this study:

> Disadvantaged communities are defined as those that experience additional and distinctive challenges in participating in entrepreneurial activity and are under-represented in entrepreneurial ecosystems. These communities are identified from the series of OECD 'Missing Entrepreneurs' reports (2013, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019) as women, youth, seniors, ethnic minorities and immigrants, unemployed and disabled people.

In identifying these different communities, some broad conclusions have been generated across the literature concerning the additional and distinctive challenges that disadvantaged communities face in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour, including a

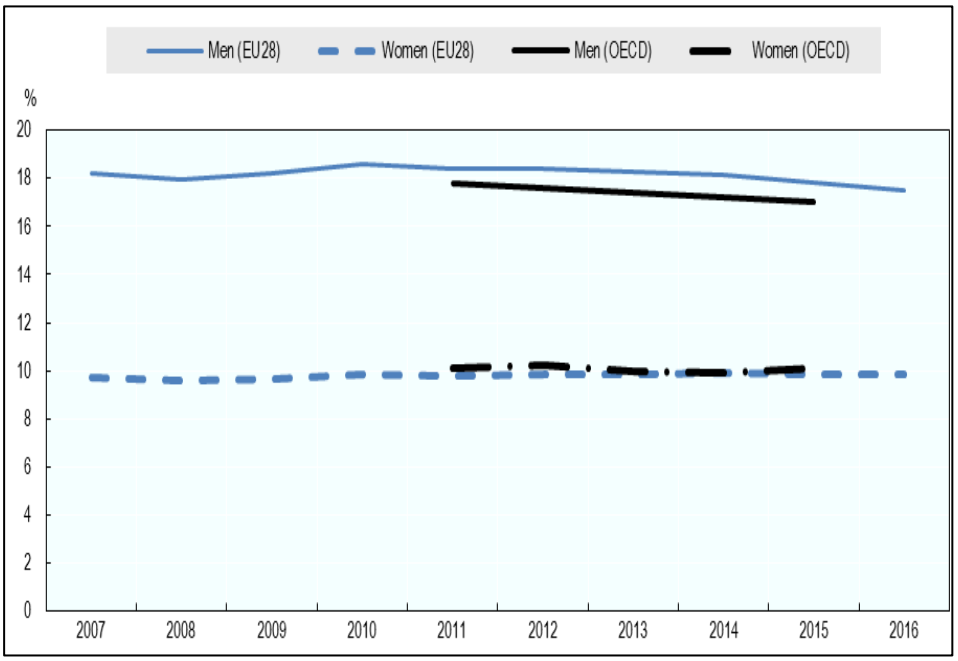
lack of necessary skills and training, a lack of appropriate access to finance, an absence of mentoring and advice, and a lack of role models (Rouse and Jayawarna, 2006; Slack, 2005; Welter et al., 2008; Galloway and Cooney, 2012). Deficits in the level and type of social capital and social networks in disadvantaged communities may also be a contributing factor (Birch and Whittam, 2006; Dodd and Keles, 2014; Williams et al., 2017). Recognising the potential role that entrepreneurship can play in strengthening social inclusion, inclusive entrepreneurship policies aim to ensure that all people, regardless of their personal characteristics and background, have an equal opportunity to start and run their own business (OECD, 2019) . The OECD 'Missing Entrepreneurs Report' (2017) identified the following common problems faced by disadvantaged groups in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour: (1) access to financial markets; (2) acquiring entrepreneurship skills; (3) access to entrepreneurial networks; and (4) access to an entrepreneurial culture. There is a growing field in entrepreneurship studies analysing the idiosyncratic challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities, which differ from those experienced by mainstream society. The distinctive challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour are discussed in the proceeding sections.

4.3.1 Women

In virtually every country in the world, female engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour is lower than that of men and women are under-represented in successful entrepreneurial ecosystems (McAdam et al, 2018). There is also evidence that participation, access to resources and outcomes in entrepreneurial ecosystems varies significantly between females and males (Brush et al, 2018). Data from the OECD (2017)

demonstrated that in 2016, women entrepreneurs accounted for just under one-third of the number of self-employed.

Figure 4.1 - Self-employment in European Union and OECD countries, 2007-16



Source: OECD (2017)

As Figure 4.1 demonstrates in the last ten years the proportion of women in self-employment is far below the proportion of men. In identifying this significant difference, it is useful to understand some of the factors that drive the statistics. Numerous studies in the literature identify the challenges that females experience when engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour. Hisrich (1986) identified four major start-up problems shared universally by female entrepreneurs across his study which were: (1) lack of business training; (2) lack of business experience; (3) weak collateral position; and (4) lack of guidance (Hisrich, 1986). Lee-Gosselin and Grise (1990) studied female entrepreneurs in Canada and found that women could benefit from technical support, help from other entrepreneurs and other professionals. Fielden and Dawe (2004) studied a cohort of nascent female entrepreneurs from socially excluded backgrounds in the United Kingdom

and identified the key challenges as: (1) fear of failure; (2) lack of start-up capital; (3) partner's unsupportive attitude; (4) lack of skills and knowledge; and (5) lack of affordable childcare.

Other studies of women from socially disadvantaged backgrounds compounded these findings. A study by Marlow (2006) identified that lone female parents and young female unemployed were much less likely than other women to have the stocks of human and social capital required to launch successful ventures, while Rouse and Kitching (2006) identified that nascent female entrepreneurs from socially excluded communities may face severe childcare problems. The OECD (2019) also identified several institutional, societal and market barriers to female engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour, with the report highlighting that two-thirds of women believe that they do not have the skills to successfully start a business and more than half of women cited 'fear of failure' as a barrier to entrepreneurship. Each of these studies highlight the contextual nature of female entrepreneurship and demonstrate that females are not a homogenous population. Whilst it is apparent that there are several reasons for the gender gap in entrepreneurial behaviour between men and women (including sexism and occupational segregation), tailored support is clearly required to address women's under representation in entrepreneurship (OECD, 2017).

Tailored entrepreneurial support for females can come in the form of government and institutional support or through businesswoman-to-businesswoman support at networking events. Within the European Union (EU), the Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan called for inclusive entrepreneurial support for women through awareness raising, entrepreneurship education and training, improved access to financing, stronger networks and support in reconciling business and family life (European Commission, 2013).

Bradford et al. (2013) conducted a study that examined the tailored entrepreneurial support systems in place for female entrepreneurs in the United States, Canada, Sweden and England. Despite various debates on the issue, overall, Bradford et al. (2013) noted that tailored support systems were viewed positively as they are working to change the image of the female entrepreneur. In Ireland, Starting Strong is an initiative for women entrepreneurs with growth ambitions launched in 2014. It provides an integrated package of training, mentoring and peer coaching. Starting Strong is operated by the Going for Growth initiative, was a winner of an European Enterprise Promotion Award 2015, and receives financial support from Enterprise Ireland and in-kind support from corporate sponsors. The initiative uses peer-learning, which can help participants build their networks with similarly ambitious entrepreneurs and has been successful at using former participants as "Lead Entrepreneurs" that deliver much of the support.

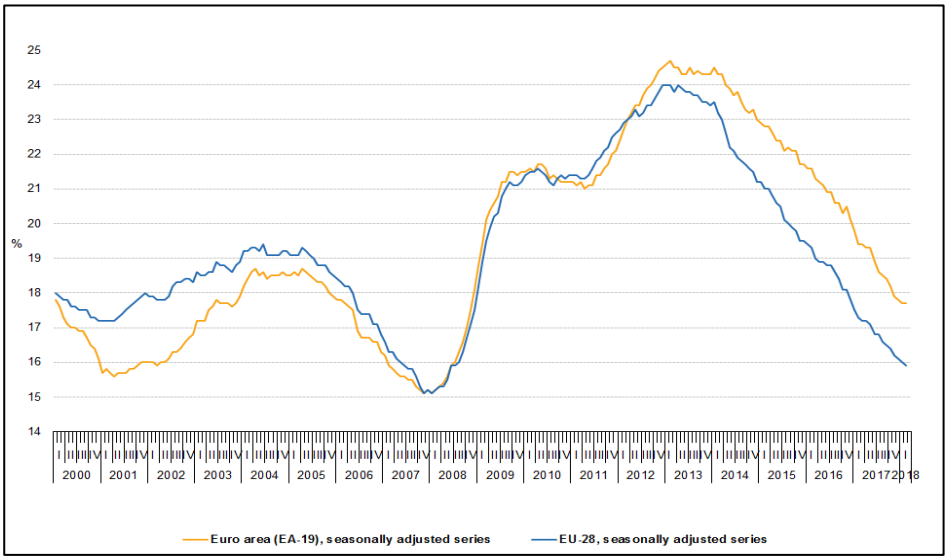
As evidenced from the brief analysis, women face additional and distinctive challenges in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour. The development of female entrepreneurship policies and tailored provision has become common in both developed and developing countries and is a response to the potential welfare gains for females, the economy and society (OECD, 2019).

4.3.2 Youth

In January 2018, 3.646 million young persons (under 25) were unemployed in the EU28 and youth unemployment rates are generally much higher that unemployment rates for all ages (Green, 2013; Eurostat, 2018). Figure 4.2 illustrates how the economic crisis of 2008 onward severely affected young people, with youth unemployment peaking at 23.9% in 2013. In 2018, the average rate of unemployment for young people was 16%.

The substantial level of youth unemployment across the globe in recent times has created an unprecedented challenge for policy makers and future forecasts validate the need for immediate, robust and coordinated solutions. Entrepreneurship is frequently proposed as a route for overcoming high levels of unemployment (Green, 2013; Blackburn and Smallbone, 2014).

Figure 4.2 - Youth Unemployment Rates, EU-28 and EA-19, 2000-2018

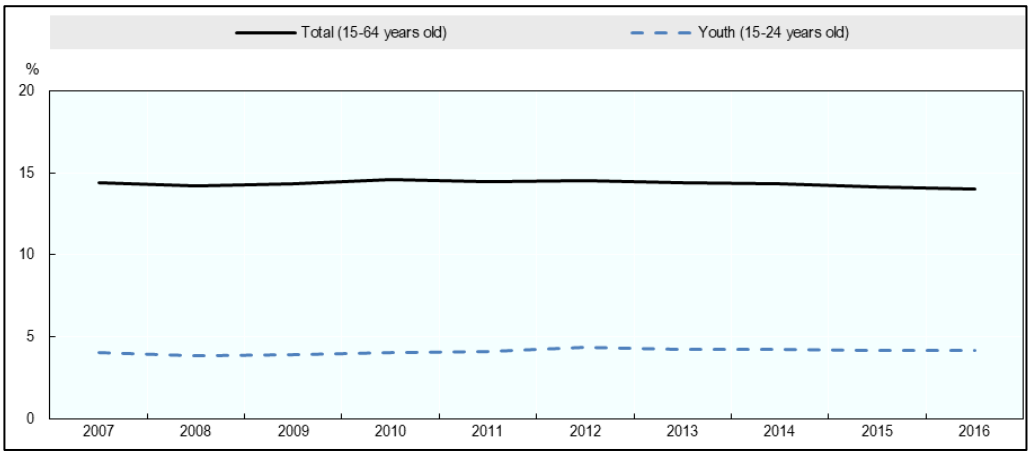


Source: Eurostat (2018)

While youth indicated a high level of interest in entrepreneurship, in 2016 only 4.1% were self-employed (OECD, 2017). Figure 4.3 illustrates that in the last ten years, the proportion of youth in self-employment is below that of the self-employment rate for adults. Knowledge focused specifically on the entrepreneurial behaviour of young people is still comparatively limited due to gaps, contradictory findings and the deficiency in evidence on impact and outcomes. Young people often face numerous obstacles to engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour due to their lower levels of human and social capital, business experience, limited access to information and lack of funding (Blackburn and Smallbone, 2014; Cassia et al., 2012; Green, 2013; Schoof, 2006). Ceptureanu and

Ceptureanu (2015) noted that young people face specific challenges preventing some youths from turning ideas into business and that those challenges include social attitudes, lack of skills, inadequate entrepreneurship education, lack of work experience, lack of capital, networks and market barriers.

Figure 4.3 - Youth Self-Employment Rates in the European Union, 2007-2016



Source: OECD (2017)

According to the OECD (2017), young people viewed entrepreneurship skills as a barrier to engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour and almost half of young people in the European Union viewed fear of failure as a reason for not starting a business. NEETs (Not in Education, Employment or Training) may experience additional challenges to other youth in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour. According to Eurofound (2011), NEETs are also more likely to be disabled, have a migrant background, have a low level of education, live in remote areas, have low household incomes and experience intergenerational unemployment. The OECD (2010) offered guidelines in engaging local youth in entrepreneurial behaviour, sharing many exemplars of good practice across the EU and the USA the role of tailored support was considered a crucial success factor. Cooney and Licciardi (2019) suggested that enhancing the entrepreneurial behaviour of young people cannot alone address youth unemployment, but it can empower youth to

contribute and feel included in society. In identifying the challenges experience by youth in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour, inclusive policies and provision must distinguish between youth and disadvantaged youth (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019).

4.3.3 Seniors

Like young people, senior workers in Europe are a cohort at risk of unemployment and for this group, once unemployed, the risk of not finding a new job is much higher than for younger age groups (Kenny and Rossiter, 2018). Statistics from the Eurostat (2012) indicated that the proportion of older people (50+) in the EU-27 was 30% in 2010 and likely to reach 37% by 2030. Thus, in recent years policy makers have placed increased attention on the promotion of entrepreneurial behaviour for older people (Kautonen et al., 2014) as people over 50 are generally characterized as having greater knowledge and professional expertise, with enhanced networks and a high level of technical and managerial skills (Kautonen et al., 2014; Schott et al, 2017). Extant research has suggested that older people are generally more capable of starting and running a business than their younger counterparts (Singh and Denoble, 2003; Weber and Schaper, 2004). The OECD (2017) corroborated these findings when they found that 42.8% of seniors felt that they had the skills needed for entrepreneurship (which is similar to the overall adult population), while 43.8% of seniors in the European Union and 38.7% of seniors in OECD countries indicated that fear of failure was a major barrier to entrepreneurship (slightly below those of the adult populations).

Whilst the recent findings from OECD (2017) would indicate that seniors are more active than the adult population in entrepreneurship, they are a very diverse grouping and the challenges that they face are additional and distinctive to mainstream

entrepreneurs. According to the OECD (2013), older people will experience additional challenges to engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour including: lack of entrepreneurship skills; financing issues; networking; and age discrimination. In addressing some of these barriers and the heterogeneous nature of this group, the OECD (2017) suggested that tailored entrepreneurial support is required for seniors which offers entrepreneurship training, improved access to finance (where necessary) and support for the development of entrepreneurship networks. A recent study of a tailored entrepreneurial training programme for unemployed seniors highlighted a small but significant increase in entrepreneurial self-efficacy in individuals after participation (Kenny and Rossiter, 2018).

4.3.4 Ethnic Minorities and Immigrants

In recent decades, the term immigrant entrepreneurship has been used interchangeably with ethnic entrepreneurship, minority entrepreneurship and several other terms when discussing the entrepreneurial behaviour of immigrants (Carter et al, 2015). In 2016, nearly 10% of those reporting as self-employed in the European Union were immigrants, approximately two-thirds of whom were born outside of the EU (OECD, 2017). It should be noted that the rate of entrepreneurial activity by immigrants is generally greater than that found amongst the native population (Naude et al, 2015).

It has been suggested that migrant and ethnic minority business start-ups are a response to labour market discrimination (Smallbone et al., 2003; Fraser, 2005). Therefore, some countries (e.g. United Kingdom) responded by introducing initiatives supporting ethnic minority businesses (EMB) which promote both enterprise and social inclusion (Blackburn and Ram, 2006). Carter et al. (2015, p.50) observed that in the UK "*ethnic minority businesses operate in highly visible sectors such as retailing and*

catering and have been valued for their role in promoting social cohesion and multiculturalism". Such studies provided evidence of the link between entrepreneurship and social inclusion.

While the recent figures for immigrant entrepreneurship are similar with the self-employment figures for the rest of the population, ethnic minorities and migrants typically have lower levels of resources and face a number of distinctive barriers to developing entrepreneurial behaviour (such as racism) than endured by the mainstream population. Bates et al (2007) identified these as the '3Ms': money, market and management skills. A consistent finding of research on ethnic minority and immigrant entrepreneurs is their under -utilisation of mainstream business support agencies, which may occur for a variety of reasons including: little understanding of the type of support available; uncertainty about the relevance of what is being offered; and lack of confidence and trust in mainstream support (Fadahunsi et al., 2000; Smallbone, 2001; Ram and Sparrow, 1993).

According to Blackburn and Smallbone (2014), the most common distinctive challenges faced by ethnic minorities and migrants in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour are their limited social networks, poor information flows, difficulties in access to markets and finance, operating in deprived locations, plus linguistic and legal framework barriers in the host country. Cooney and O'Flynn (2008) highlighted that policy makers frequently do not understand the additional and distinctive challenges faced by ethnic and immigrant entrepreneurs and believe that access to mainstream supports is enough to satisfy their need in terms of engendering entrepreneurial behaviour. Given the complexity of needs for ethnic minorities and migrants, it has been argued that tailored entrepreneurship support is required (Galloway and Cooney, 2012).

This may require outreach within communities highlighting training and funding opportunities in various languages.

4.3.5 Unemployed

Policy makers have long been interested in the potential of entrepreneurship and self-employment as a mechanism to support unemployed people (in addition to NEETS that were discussed earlier) back into work. Eurostat (2018) identified that unemployment steadily increased between the second quarter of 2011 until the second quarter of 2013, taking it to a record level of 26.5 million people unemployed in late 2013 (these figures resulted from the 2008 economic crash which caused a dramatic increase in the rates of unemployment across the globe). However, in recent years the rate of unemployment in many countries has generally been falling and employment levels are now returning to pre-economic recession levels. The rate of unemployment in EU countries in April 2018 was 7.1 percent, which was estimated to be 17.462 million men and women in the EU 28 (Eurostat, 2018). The European Commission (2016) highlighted that long-term unemployment can lead to a deterioration of skills and human capital, thereby hindering one's capabilities relevant to entrepreneurial behaviour. The EC also observed that despite much research, policy triggers and programmes, fewer than 5 percent of unemployed people across the EU transition into self-employment each year and globally the figures remain lower than predictions.

Research from the European Working Conditions Survey (2015) accentuated the promise of engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour for unemployed people by focusing on their potential to contribute to innovation, job creation and economic sustainability, with Caliendo et al (2014) finding that regional factors, the rural/urban divide and motivation

all influencing the entrepreneurial behaviour of the unemployed. Zouhar and Lukes (2015) found that nascent entrepreneurship of unemployed individuals was lower for females, youth and people with lower education. However, an OECD (2017) report highlighted that policy makers need to be aware that engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour is not a solution for all unemployed people. Studies by Block and Koellinger (2009) and Boyce et al. (2015) indicated that unemployment has wider psychological implications than previously thought and will have a greater impact on entrepreneurial behaviour than formerly understood. According to Cooney and Licciardi (2019,) inclusive entrepreneurship policies and tailored provision can equalise discrepancies in society and change outcomes, but the type and level of support is an influencing factor in supporting the development of entrepreneurial behaviour in individuals that are unemployed.

4.3.6 People with Disability

People with disabilities account for 16% of the total working age population in the EU (Blackburn and Smallbone, 2014). Evidence from the UK, USA and Ireland indicated that disabled people have lower rates of employment yet are self-employed in significantly greater proportions than able-bodied people (Cooney, 2008). However, motivation for engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour may be in response to exclusion from labour market opportunities (Boylan and Burchardt, 2003). Research has indicated that in addition to their lower levels of educational attainment and social network capital, disabled people may face other obstacles to engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour, including: limited access to resources, untailored information, lack of business knowledge and skills, fear of losing regular benefit income (‘benefit trap’) and lack of applicable and

perceptive business supports (Kitching, 2014). In addressing the needs of disabled entrepreneurs, a holistic approach is required that provides tailored training programmes, on-going business support, microfinance loans and disability awareness training for business advisers (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019). The tailored entrepreneurial bootcamp for veterans developed by Syracuse University, USA is discussed in section 4.4.

There are a number of findings that can be drawn from this analysis of the various social target groups that are disadvantaged in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour. An initial finding is that there is a paucity of academic literature regarding enterprising behaviour (broad) and disadvantaged communities, this is despite the emergence of practice in this area which is discussed later. Utilising the term entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) as a proxy for enterprising behaviour enabled the study to gain significant insight from the academic literature on disadvantaged communities and entrepreneurial activity. While recent decades have seen significant growth in the rates of entrepreneurship (OECD, 2017), the analysis highlighted how some groups in society remain greatly disadvantaged and under-represented in terms of entrepreneurial activity. Galloway and Cooney (2012) and OECD (2017) have related the systemic failures of entrepreneurial ecosystems, government policies and enterprise support agencies to the reduced rates of entrepreneurial activity amongst these communities. Research by Greene and Butler (1996) reinforced the necessity of understanding the institutional underpinnings of various types of business creation processes, as well as the continued importance of the development of the business founder. Whilst there is heterogeneity amongst and within disadvantaged groups, a major finding of this analysis is that they all experience significant additional and distinctive barriers in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour. Furthermore, it is evident that the mainstream, conventional or ‘one-size-fits all’ approach

to entrepreneurial support is inadequate because these social target groups have significant and complex needs. Addressing this situation, there is now greater recognition that tailored and holistic entrepreneurial support is required for disadvantaged communities (Sciglimpaglia et al., 2013; Yusuf, 2015, Cooney and Licciardi, 2019).

Moreover, these groups may be difficult to reach by regular or mainstream support services (Blackburn and Smallbone, 2014). Studies in the USA, Australia, UK and Netherlands have indicated that despite evidence of "good practice", government and mainstream business supports have had limited success engaging with under-represented groups such as Black, Minority, Ethnic and immigrant groups (Kloosterman, 2003; Ram and Jones, 2008). The reasons for this may be attributed to a perceived lack of relevance of enterprise support products, cultural and language difficulties, or a low level of trust in officialdom (Blackburn et al., 2008; Ram and Jones, 2008). Disadvantaged or under-represented groups may also be sceptical of mainstream enterprise support, as evidenced in Fielden and Dawes (2004) study of nascent female entrepreneurs from socially excluded backgrounds which highlighted that women did not feel comfortable accessing mainstream business advice and support, particularly when the provision was centrally located rather than community based. An outreach or community-based delivery model may address the challenge of engaging hard-to-reach groups with tailored enterprise support (Blackburn et al., 2008; Blackburn and Smallbone, 2014; OECD, 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008; Swash, 2007).

As explored in Chapter Three, enterprising behaviour can be understood in the broader definition of entrepreneurship and relates to personal characteristics such as willingness to change, flexibility, opportunity seeking and creativity. Enterprising behaviour can find expression in many different contexts, not just in new venture creation

or business. It has been suggested that enterprising behaviour is a more basic kind of entrepreneurial behaviour (Gibb, 1987) or a pre-requisite to entrepreneurial behaviour (Blenker, 2008). In this way, supporting individuals to express enterprising behaviour may be seen as building capacity for entrepreneurial behaviour or as a potential bridge to entrepreneurial activity. Acknowledging the additional and distinctive challenges that disadvantaged communities experience in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour a number of initiatives are emerging in practice which support disadvantaged communities to engage in enterprising behaviour. These initiatives identify that disadvantaged communities have significant capabilities but may not yet have the capacity to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour (Downs and Lambros, 2014). Moreover, such initiatives may be better connected with social needs, social cohesion and sustainability (Berglund, 2007).

In addition to the REACT project discussed in Chapter Three, there are a growing number of tailored education and training initiatives that support disadvantaged communities to engage in enterprising behaviour (broad). The Elimental Project (www. eliemental.org) funded by the European Commission developed community-based, tailored enterprise education and training programmes for ethnic minorities, young people and women over the age of 40. In identifying the distinctive challenge that these communities experienced, the enterprising programme focused on personal development and soft skills including idea and opportunity development, teamwork and organisational skills. The project aimed to promote positive self-perception and confidence within individuals through supporting the development of enterprising behaviour as a potential bridge to entrepreneurial activity. Focusing specifically on youth, Patch (https://dogpatchlabs.com/patch/) is an Irish enterprise training programme for 16-19 year

olds. Patch is focused on supporting young people to develop ideas rather than build a new venture. Tailored especially for the programme's young audience, the goal is foster peer interaction, curiosity and exploration through training and mentorship. The focus for Patch is on creating and testing ideas, developing young people's capacity and confidence and acting as a starting point on a potential entrepreneurial journey.

As evidenced in the above exemplars, education and training is a key element of tailored provision supporting enterprising behaviour in disadvantage communities. It is arguable that HEIs are ideally positioned to develop tailored entrepreneurial education and training for disadvantaged communities given: the cross-disciplinary knowledge and expertise that resides on campus; the rise in HEI–community engagement; the growth in experiential entrepreneurial education in higher education; and their position as a link between top-down government and industry policies and practices with bottom-up civil society and grassroots initiatives and priorities (Hazelkorn, 2016a). Audretsch (2014) argued that the role of HEIs in society stretches beyond generating technology transfer (through, for example, patents, spin-offs and start-ups) encompassing wider regional roles such as contributing and providing leadership for creating entrepreneurial thinking, entrepreneurial capital and facilitating behaviour to prosper in society. The role of HEIs in supporting more inclusive entrepreneurial ecosystems through tailored entrepreneurial education and training is explored in the proceeding section.

4.4 HEIs, Disadvantaged Communities and Enterprising Behaviour

As identified in Chapter Two, throughout history societal development and society's changing need for knowledge has resulted in the adaption of higher education to meet societal demands and engage with communities. HEI engagement with wider

society has gained increasingly in significance in recent years and there is a growing expectation that HEIs will make a greater contribution to the major challenges facing society (Goddard et al., 2018) A commonly referenced demonstration of community engagement is the role HEIs play in local and regional development. In this way HEIs, are often referred to as 'anchor institutions'[5]. According to Axelroth and Dubb (2010), HEIs acting as anchor institutions:

> *consciously apply their long-term, place-based economic power, in combination with their human and intellectual resources, to better the long-term welfare of the communities in which they reside.*

As discussed in Chapter Two, the 'triple helix' model of engagement (in which higher education, government and business collaborate) is considered critical to economic development. However, it has been recognised that this model may not be the most effective approach (Goddard et al, 2018). This is because the focus on HEI-business cooperation may shift the focus of research and knowledge production away from societal interests toward industry or individual interests (Ssebuwufu et al., 2012). It is widely recognised that a 'quadruple helix' model is needed with government, industry, academia and civil society collaborating (Carayannis and Campbell, 2009) to address societal challenges such as environmental sustainability and social exclusion which have both a global and local dimension (Goldsmith, 2018).

5

Anchor institutions may be universities, hospitals and other place-based organisations that play a vital role in their local communities and economies. They tend to remain in their geographical settings, even as conditions change around them. Therefore, they are vital assets to their neighbourhoods, towns, cities and regions. Increasingly, anchor institutions are expected to do more in their communities and become active civic participants in improving health and well-being in their surroundings (Smallbone et. al ,2015)

More recently, HEIs are enacting quadruple helix interactions through entrepreneurship and community engagement. These approaches are different from the traditional third mission or outreach activities that focus on contributing to the knowledge economy through business engagement, entrepreneurship and innovation (Benneworth et al, 2018). According to Morris et al. (2013), entrepreneurship and community engagement may include: outreach programmes incorporating new models of education (tailored community bootcamps, speaker forums, networking, business plan competitions, community incubators and accelerators); engagement through the curriculum (service learning); and student engagement (student clubs and societies). The provision may vary depending on the mission, stakeholders and resources of a HEI. Kingma (2011) argued that entrepreneurship and community engagement is a powerful value generator, creating value for students, institutions and local communities.

A small but growing body of academic literature addresses the development by HEIs of tailored and customised entrepreneurial education and training initiatives that support the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) in disadvantaged communities. These initiatives reflect what Goddard et al. (2018, p.5) refer to as "*HEIs moving beyond their walls and connecting with communities in way that are novel, challenging and impactful*", however, they remain infrequent. According to Haynie and Shaheen (2011) the pedagogical requirements of tailored programmes integrate an understanding of the challenges that disadvantaged communities experience in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour with entrepreneurial education and training. The cross disciplinary expertise that reside on a HEI campus is a critical component in the development of tailored provision and a differentiating factor from traditional provision within an entrepreneurial ecosystem (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011). To date, the

predominant focus of tailored HEI community provision is on supporting the development of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) with a business development or start up focus for potential and nascent entrepreneurs.

The literature identifies inclusive entrepreneurial education provision developed by HEIs for a range of disadvantaged communities including ethnic minorities (Cooney, 2009), seniors (Kenny and Rossiter, 2018), disabled community (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011, Shaheen, 2011; Shaheen, 2016) and prisoners (Cooney, 2012b).

Case Study 4.1 – Entrepreneurial Bootcamp for Veterans, Syracuse University

Founded in 1870, Syracuse University is a private coeducational, research institution located in the heart of Central New York. Through a cross-campus entrepreneurship initiative, Syracuse University have developed several inclusive community outreach programs in entrepreneurship. According to Prof. Alex Kostakis (Whitman School of Management, Syracuse) *"in a broad sense, entrepreneurship is a set of behaviours that encompasses things like opportunity recognition, risk assessment, acquisition of resources, and execution. It can manifest itself in many different ways in the environment"*. One initiative, the 'Entrepreneurship Bootcamp for Veterans (EBV)' provided holistic entrepreneurial training and support program for post 9-11 U.S. veterans with disabilities. The program leveraged the resources, skills and expertise available on the Syracuse Campus in entrepreneurship (Whitman School of Management) and disability (Burton Blatt Institution). The program combined entrepreneurial training tailored to the specific needs of disabled veterans. Following early success, Syracuse established the EBV consortium in partnership with other colleges and universities as a national U.S. entrepreneurial education initiative supporting veterans in entrepreneurship. In 2016, there were 1,600 EBV program graduates with 68% having launched a business (EBV website, 2018). EBV is an exemplar of how universities can leverage their multidisciplinary knowledge and expertise to address economic and social challenges within disadvantaged communities by engendering higher levels of entrepreneurial behaviour (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011; Shaheen, 2011, 2016).

Source: www.syracuse.edu

The award-winning Entrepreneurship Bootcamp for Veterans (Case Study 4.1) initiative developed at Syracuse University has extended significant economic and social value for disadvantaged communities and advanced the community engagement mission of HEIs (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011). EBV is now supported by a consortium of HEIs advancing the social mission of higher education and reaching greater audiences and communities.

Shaheen (2011; 2016) outlined the following core elements for inclusive entrepreneurial education (Winer and Ray, 1994):

- *Articulate the Mission:* Stakeholders including community partners, disadvantaged communities, HEI staff, students and senior management should have a clear understanding and be able to disseminate the mission, vison and value of the initiative
- *Obtain University buy-in:* Obtaining buy in across the HEI, particularly from senior management and administration to support the time and commitment faculty require to develop sustainable community partnership and develop tailored programmes.
- *Identify and Convene Key Stakeholders:* HEIs that have broad-based knowledge of their communities and are actively involved with community agencies as a partner may be able to identify the key players, both on and off campus to assist in programme development and delivery.
- *Elect a Skilled Convener:* A skilled convener that is trusted and recognised by diverse stakeholders can help drive consensus and action.
- *Map resources, barriers and facilitators:* Working in partnership HEIs and communities should undertake a mapping process to determine barriers, facilitators, needs and gaps that must be considered in increasing self-employment outcomes for disadvantaged communities within their own unique cultural, social and economic environment.
- *Develop a consensus-driven plan:* Detailed planning and programme development including all stakeholders is required in advance of training and education provision

- *Market the Mission:* Market the self-employment mission both internally and externally. This enables programmes to grow through resource acquisition.
- *Evaluate Outcomes:* Independent evaluation of both programme goals and outcomes may assist in long term sustainability
- *Sustain the Effort:* Long term sustainability should be a key consideration for all stakeholders. Embedding the initiative within the university, community and entrepreneurial ecosystem will assist in this element

Recognising the additional and distinctive challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities in engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour, HEIs have developed their outreach agenda partnering with several stakeholders in the development of tailored and customised entrepreneurial education training initiatives which is predominantly focused on the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow). Engaging students, faculty, community partners and disadvantaged communities these inclusive entrepreneurial education initiatives have had significant societal and economic impact increasing entrepreneurial self-efficacy, improving the rate of small business development in disadvantaged communities and fostering social inclusion (Shaheen, 2016, Cooney, 2009; 2012b; Kenny and Rossiter, 2018). The development of inclusive entrepreneurial education initiatives by HEIs demonstrates an expanded role for HEIs in the entrepreneurial ecosystem.

However, initiatives tailored towards learning entrepreneurial behaviour in terms of start-up or new venture creation, may not be suitable for all disadvantaged communities. As recent practice suggests some disadvantaged communities may not have the capacity to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour and may benefit from support in developing enterprising behaviour. Despite HEIs knowledge and expertise in supporting

the learning of enterprising behaviour as evidenced in Chapter Three, the academic literature provides no evidence of how HEIs might support disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour (broad). This study is focused on addressing this gap in knowledge and the academic literature. In the next section, a conceptual framework is presented which draws the findings from the literature review together in the consideration of HEIs supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities.

4.5 Towards a New Conceptual Framework

Identifying the gap in knowledge concerning HEIs, disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour this research study set out to answer the question:

> ***"How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the Learning of Enterprising Behaviours in Disadvantaged Communities?"***

To date, the inter-relationship between HEI Community engagement, disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour has been underexplored in the literature. The literature review explored evolving definitions, theories and associated models and frameworks in the research fields of (1) HEI Community engagement, (2) Entrepreneurial Education (Enterprising Behaviour), and (3) Disadvantaged Communities (Figure 1.1).

In moving towards a new conceptual framework, the findings from the literature review are now drawn together, analysed and synthesised in an integrated fashion (Toracco, 2005, 2016). Locke and Golden-Biddle (1997) refer to theoretical contributions from this

type of study as ‘synthesised coherence’. Through synthesised coherence researchers draw connections between literature, investigative streams and domains not currently drawn together in the literature to gain insight in under-developed research areas. Drawing the three fields of study together requires the integration of several theoretical perspectives across each of the three fields of study.

Due to the complex interdisciplinary nature of this study, it is not researched in reference to one theory, or constructs resident within one theory, but several. According to Liehr and Smith (1999) this synthesis may be called a conceptual model or framework, which essentially represents an ‘integrated’ way of looking at a research problem. A conceptual framework may be defined as an end result of bringing together a number of related constructs to explain or predict a given event or give a broader understanding of the phenomenon of interest. The process of arriving at a conceptual framework is akin to an inductive process whereby small individual pieces (in this case, constructs) are joined together to tell a bigger map of possible relationships. Thus, a conceptual framework is derived from constructs, in-so-far as a theoretical framework is derived from a theory. More recently, Davidsson (2016) referred to this approach as the development of an ‘eclectic framework’ integrating relevant constructs from several theories together.

Throughout the literature review several theoretical frameworks were identified as useful in understanding the phenomenon under study. In Chapter Two, exploring HEI Community engagement, the Holland framework (2001) was adapted to identify foundational components for successful HEI Community engagement in disadvantaged communities. Whilst the Holland framework can be utilised to understand the levels of HEI Community engagement within a HEI, it is also helpful in recognising the components necessary for successful community engagement (Furco and Miller 2009).

The Holland framework has been influential in the development of HEI engagement frameworks internationally and is inclusive of the university (staff, students, mission and infrastructure) and community. In the context of this study, the theoretical constructs: Mission and Infrastructure; Community Partnerships; HEI students and Faculty are included as constructs to investigate HEI Community engagement with disadvantaged communities (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 - Theoretical Constructs: HEI Community Engagement

In chapter Three, the entrepreneurial education framework of Fayolle and Gailly (2008) was utilised to conceptualise the design of entrepreneurial education provision supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. Whilst predominantly utilised in the context of higher education, this framework identified a number of dimensions including Ontology (entrepreneurship theory) and Didactics (education theory, pedagogy, educator role, anticipated outcomes) in supporting the design of entrepreneurial education. The introduction by Maritz and Foley (2013) of the additional dimension of context (audience, environment) expanded the utility of the framework beyond the formal education setting. In the context of this study, the theoretical constructs: Ontology, Didactics and Context

are included as constructs to explore the development of tailored provision in enterprising behaviour for disadvantaged communities (Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.5 - Theoretical Constructs: Learning Enterprising Behaviour

As discussed in Chapter Three and identified by Maritz and Foley (2013) the entrepreneurial education literature advocates for the inclusion of context as an integral component in the design of entrepreneurial education initiatives (Penaluna et al., 2012; Edwards and Muir, 2012; Harte and Stewart, 2012; Balan and Metcalfe, 2012; Matlay, 2005).

Chapter Four provided the contextual element to this study. This chapter identified the additional and distinctive challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities in developing entrepreneurial potential and identified that tailored training and support is required. Emerging practice in the area of disadvantaged communities and learning enterprising behaviour identified that capacity building was a key element of provision (Downs and Lambros, 2014). These additional constructs are added to the framework as the study is specifically focused on disadvantaged communities (figure 4.6)

Figure 4.6 - Theoretical Constructs: Disadvantaged Communities

Drawing upon the academic literature, the nine theoretical constructs (Figure 4.4, 4.5, 4.6) are now utilised as core constructs to gain a broader understanding of how HEIs may support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities.

- **HEI Mission and Infrastructure**

HEI community engagement is always context specific and arising from individual institutional histories and locations, as well as those institutions' view about their strategic position (Laing and Maddison, 2007). Community engagement can fulfil different social purposes and HEIs may approach community engagement from different stances or perspectives according to their mission and ethos (Hazelkorn, 2016a). Different types of engagement activities are more relevant and suitable to HEIs depending on the perspective, agenda, ethos and mission of each institution. Authentic community engagement with disadvantaged communities is premised on producing mutual benefits for university (mission) and community goals (Benneworth et al, 2018). Institutional commitment is a major factor in developing successful community engagement with disadvantaged communities (Robinson et al, 2012; Shaheen 2011; 2016) and supportive

university leadership and management is critical to the long-term success of community engagement initiatives (Powell and Dayson, 2013; Kingma, 2014). Institutional commitment is realised in institutional infrastructure that supports engagement practice (Sandmann and Kliewer, 2012; Holland, 2001). HEIs that have developed successful inclusive entrepreneurial education programmes for disadvantaged communities have embedded the initiative within their societal outreach mission and demonstrated the mutual benefit to both the university and the community (Shaheen, 2011; 2016). A HEI philosophy and mission that emphasises engagement (may specifically identify disadvantaged, underserved or socially excluded communities) and corresponding institutional strategy, supportive leadership and infrastructure is deemed a key factor in the development of HEI Community outreach initiatives.

- **Academic Staff (Faculty)**

Genuine faculty involvement and support for engaged research and teaching is a foundational element of HEI community engagement (Holland, 2001). This may be facilitated through a supportive university infrastructure with respect to workload allocation models, promotion criteria and professional development (Bates et al, 2020).

HEI -community outreach initiatives need appropriate academic staff with connections to the community and an engagement approach that allows for collaborative and shared learning (Quillinan et al, 2018). In supporting entrepreneurial education outside the HEI setting, the task of an entrepreneurial educator (academic staff) is to create an education environment that can encourage enterprising behaviour (QAA, 2012), but also to have the disposition, orientation and perspective to be externally focused to engage with disadvantaged communities in a reciprocal way (Rubens et al, 2017). A faculty champion

is a key ingredient in successful inclusive community entrepreneurial programmes with a background support infrastructure (Kingma, 2011). Some HEIs have a centralised resource to assist faculty in developing and growing outreach programmes, this provision may be linked to the overarching commitment of a HEI to the community engagement agenda (Bernard and Bates, 2016).

- **HEI Students**

Kingma (2014, e-pub) suggested that community-based programmes that involved students had a dynamism and vibrancy that was a key success factor in the initiative, Kingma argued "*well-intentioned programs that help community entrepreneurship and economic development but do not involve students should be avoided*". The growth of research and academic literature on the concept of service learning (community-based learning) represents the importance that contemporary HEIs place on engaged teaching and learning. Depending on HEI structures, community outreach initiatives may engage students through experiential learning, volunteering, and student clubs or societies (Pittaway et al, 2015). Some HEIs have developed inclusive experiential entrepreneurship course that are delivered in tandem with community engagement initiatives (Shaheen, 2016). Co-learning approaches involving students and community partners learning together have been identified as a novel approach to community outreach providing mutual benefit to HEI students in addition to building community capacity (Suiter et al., 2016).

- **Community Partnerships**

The creation of mutual benefit between HEIs and socially excluded communities is a critical consideration in community engagement (Benneworth, 2013). Described as 'meaningful interactions' between a HEI and a disadvantaged community mutual benefits may be achieved through reciprocity which is understood as 'a*n ongoing process of exchange with the aim to establish and maintain equality between the community and a HEI'* (Maiter et al, 2008). Building reciprocal HEI community partnerships may be challenging (Dempsey, 2010). Establishing trust among all partners and maintaining reciprocity in defining objectives is critical to sustaining HEI community partnerships (Allawala et al, 2013). Often described as 'authentic partnerships' (Fitzgerald et al., 2016) these are enabled when initiatives are designed 'with' rather than 'for' community (Kingma, 2014; Escrigas et al., 2014). The active involvement of disadvantaged communities in the design of community engagement initiatives is considered critical (Preece, 2017; Benneworth, 2013). The design and development of inclusive entrepreneurial programmes may involve a number of stakeholders including government services and support, community groups, CSOs, local business and universities (Shaheen, 2016). HEIs that have broad based knowledge of their communities and are actively involved with community agencies as a partner may be able to identify key player both on and off campus to be involved in development (Bringle et al., 2012; Kilpatrick and Loechel, 2004).

- **Ontology**

Specifying the objectives and goals of an entrepreneurial education programme may be deemed the first step in entrepreneurial education design (Maritz and Brown, 2013)

Guided by programme goals, entrepreneurship education programmes should be based on a clear conception and understanding of entrepreneurship, leading to a non-ambiguous definition of entrepreneurial education (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Neck and Corbett, 2018). The purpose of entrepreneurial education spans from promoting new venture creation to stimulating enterprising behaviour in general (Blenker et al., 2008; Maritz and Brown, 2013). Supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour is a broader concept of entrepreneurship which includes the development of entrepreneurial attitudes and skills as well as personal qualities and is not directly focused on the creation of new ventures (Gibb, 2002; Blenker et al, 2011; 2012). In this broader context, enterprising behaviour has relevance to any member of society and is inclusive in nature (Kakouris, 2018). Considerations at the ontological level also include the role of the educator and the role of the audience (Hannon, 2005; 2006).

- **Context**

Context is considered a central theme in entrepreneurial education design and is gaining increasing significance in the literature (Maritz and Brown, 2013; Thomassen et al, 2019). Context may be operated at the micro level (programme, audience and setting), meso level (university and local region) and macro levels (National and International policy and economics). Inclusive community entrepreneurial programmes may be enabled by national and international higher education and entrepreneurship policy, and the role and mission of HEIs within their region. At the micro level, context is operationalised in consideration of audience, educator, content, location and objectives (Bechard and Gregoire, 2005; Maritz and Brown, 2013). The contextual elements of an entrepreneurial education initiative inside a higher education institution will require

different consideration from that outside a higher education institution in a community setting (Fayolle, 2013).

- **Didactics (Teaching & Learning)**

There is no best way in entrepreneurial education (Neck and Corbett, 2018), rather programme design depends on the programme goals, audience, resources, educators and outcomes. Supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour (broad) requires different didactical considerations to supporting the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow). Stimulating enterprising behaviour builds upon the cognitive, affective and conative (knowledge, skills and attitudes) domains of learning (Bloom, 1956). This is considered a 'whole person' approach to learning (Tassone and Eppink, 2016) which encourages personal growth and development. Learning to be enterprising is typically experiential (Kolb, 1984) and resides within social constructionist theories of knowledge and education (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Gibb, 2012). Enterprising behaviour may be fostered through supporting individuals to identify opportunities in their own life building upon the *a priori* knowledge, skills and experiences within individuals (Blenker et al, 2012). This situated learning philosophy (Lave and Wenger, 1991) has congruence with community education, where participants may not have engaged with formal education in a long time and/or have negative prior education experience. In a community context the lived experience of participants and the subjective experience of the learner is considered vital and transformative (Connolly, 2010). Didactics in a community setting may involve andragogical (Knowles, 1984) and critical pedagogic approaches (Freire, 1972), This aspect is considered further below.

- **Capacity Building**

A central tenet of community education in marginalised and disadvantaged communities is to build capacity through learning (Connolly, 2010). Effective HEI community engagement with disadvantaged communities is premised on the co-enquiry or co-production of knowledge (Robinson and Hudson, 2013). This values knowledge production both in the academy and the community (Rawsthrone and de Pree, 2019; Preece, 2017; Gidley et al., 2010) and moves away from deficit-based models of engagement. The inclusive nature of enterprising behaviour recognises that entrepreneurial capacity and potential resides more broadly in society. Adopting a Freirean perspective (Critical pedagogy) in the development of inclusive entrepreneurial training and support in marginalised communities has supported the mobilising of entrepreneurial potential (Berglund and Johnasson, 2007).

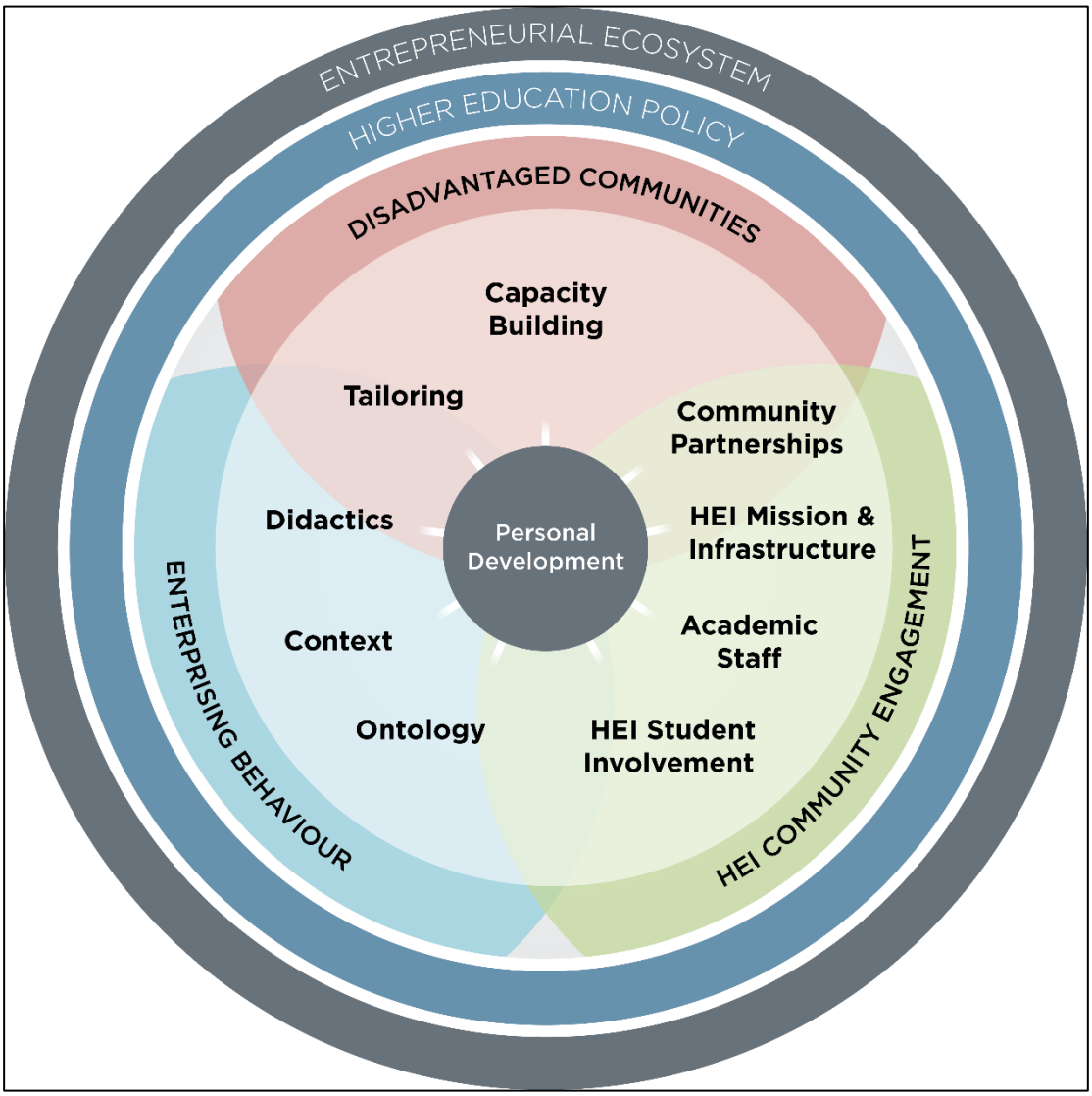
- **Tailoring**

It is now widely acknowledged that due to the additional and distinctive challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities, they require tailored and customised support in developing their entrepreneurial potential (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019). The cross disciplinary expertise that reside on a HEI campus is considered a critical component of inclusive community entrepreneurial provision and a differentiating factor from traditional and mainstream provision within an entrepreneurial ecosystem (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011). In addition to the expertise across disciplines, HEI may utilise support offices (e.g. TTO, Community Engagement, Alumni etc) to generate unique offerings for communities (Quillinan, 2018). Engaging authentically with communities

in a co-creation process, HEIs are suitably positioned to develop tailored and flexible inclusive entrepreneurial education programmes (Allahwala et al, 2013).

The new conceptual framework is illustrated in figure 4.7 as a visual representation and organisation of the study's major theoretical constructs (Ravitch and Riggan, 2017).

Figure 4.7 – Conceptual Framework Supporting Inclusive HEI Community Enterprising Behaviour Initiatives



The framework acknowledges that supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour takes place within the broader context of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and HEI education

policy (macro level) which is illustrated in the outer two circles. However, the theoretical contribution of this study resides within the next three overlapping circles. These three overlapping circles identify the gap in knowledge that exists regarding the intersectionality between HEI community engagement, learning enterprising behaviour and disadvantaged communities. The nine foundational constructs as outlined above represent key considerations for the actors in a HEI to consider in supporting disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour. The anticipated outcome of supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities is identified as personal development, which may be linked to self-efficacy and growth. The anticipated outcome is placed in the centre of the framework and may be evaluated through holistic approaches (Pittaway and Cope, 2007; Jensen, 2014). In the longer term, building capacity through enterprising behaviour programmes may contribute positively to social and economic development. From the perspective of disadvantaged communities, having broader access to HEI entrepreneurial education may support the development of human and social capital. Simultaneously, such engagement activities will ensure that HEIs are more inclusive, equitable and accessible to their local communities.

4.6 Conclusion

Entrepreneurial activity is widely considered to be a key element in the growth of national economies. The growth of entrepreneurship/enterprise policies and supporting entrepreneurial ecosystems in many countries across the globe stand testimony to this development. There is an underlying assumption within entrepreneurial ecosystems frameworks that all in society have equal access to resources and supports within an

ecosystem, but evidence suggests that this may not always be true (Brush et al., 2018). Many social target groups are disadvantaged and under-represented in entrepreneurial activity. Disadvantaged communities are defined as those that experience additional and distinctive challenges in participating in entrepreneurial activity and are under-represented in entrepreneurial ecosystems. These communities include: women, youth, seniors, ethnic minorities and immigrants, unemployed and disabled people (OECD 2013, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019). It has been suggested that through tailored training and support disadvantaged communities could be better equipped to overcome the challenges they experience in engaging in entrepreneurial activity which differs from those experienced by mainstream society (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019).

HEIs are one of the key stakeholders in entrepreneurial ecosystems and in recent times, HEIs have expanded their role in the entrepreneurial ecosystem in the development of tailored entrepreneurial education programmes for disadvantaged communities that support the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) (Haynie and Shaheen, 2011; Shaheen, 2016). In contemporary academic literature there is a move towards conceptualising entrepreneurship as enterprising behaviour, which has a wider relevance to more people in society. The outcomes of engaging in enterprising behaviour are focused on personal development and growth prior to any potential start-up or new venture creation. Contemporary entrepreneurial education approaches now recognise that entrepreneurial education is not just about new venture creation, but developing enterprising behaviour for personal, societal and economic impact. Despite the potential benefits to disadvantaged communities in engaging in enterprising behaviour, there is an absence of academic literature available to support HEIs who may wish to progress this

agenda. Identifying this gap in academic knowledge, this study aims to address the situation through the development of an evidence-based framework.

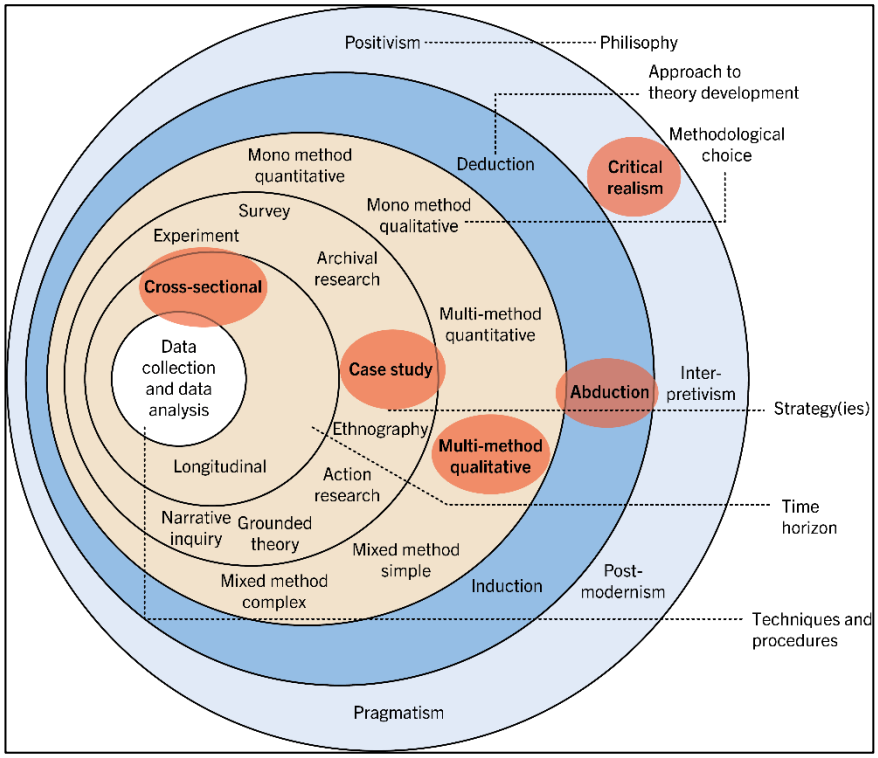
The conceptual framework presented in this chapter has drawn from a vast amount of literature to synthesis how HEIs might support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. It provides a platform to guide conceptually the data analysis of this study. Furthermore, the conceptual framework offers unique contributions to the existing theoretical knowledge about the provision of tailored entrepreneurial education and training for disadvantaged communities supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. The next chapter explains the methodological decisions that were informed by the conceptual framework presented in the chapter to position and guide this research study.

Chapter 5. Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapters presented the rationale for this research study, a detailed review of the literature relevant to the issue of investigation and the presentation of the conceptual framework that emerged from a synthesis of the literature. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an accurate picture of the research design and to clarify the researcher's position within this study. Throughout this chapter, the process of the methodological journey taken during this research study is facilitated through adopting the research 'onion' approach developed by Saunders et al. (2016) as illustrated in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 - Key Research Project Decisions



Source: Adapted from Saunders et al.(2016)

Saunders et al's research onion depicts how the outer layers of philosophy and research reasoning provide the context and boundaries within which the research strategy,

data collection techniques, processing of data and analysis procedures should be selected. In a kitchen environment, the first layer of the onion after peeling is usually thrown away. However, in research, the outer layers of the onion form the root and the middle layers the building blocks of the research. They are crucial to the development of an appropriate research design which is coherent with the objectives and the research question. The key decisions taken in this study are highlighted in Figure 5.1 below. The goal of this chapter is to justify and explain the rationale behind the key decisions made in selecting a suitable research methodology to address the research question of this study. This study is concerned with investigating how HEIs can support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities through the development of tailored education programmes. This research study sets out to address the following research question: *"How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the Learning of Enterprising Behaviour in Disadvantaged communities?".* This chapter now considers a suitable approach to answering the research question through consideration of research philosophy, approaches to reasoning, strategies, techniques and procedures that support research exploration.

5.2 Research Philosophy

All research is based on some underlying assumptions about what constitutes 'valid' knowledge. Hence, in order to conduct research, it is important to know what are these assumptions. According to Saunders et al. (2016), philosophical assumptions in research must be established in order to define the nature of the knowledge that is produced. Research paradigms address the philosophical dimensions of social science research. Kuhn (1962) first used the word paradigm to describe a philosophical way of

thinking. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.107) provided a definition of a paradigm when they said that:

> *A paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimates or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the world, the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its part*.

According to Jonker and Pennink (2010), a research paradigm is a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs regarding how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher. O'Gorman and MacIntosh (2015) outlined that a researcher should be able to argue the suitability of a chosen paradigm and maintain their position within it, despite possible alternatives.

Crotty (1998) suggested that research paradigms are comprised of 3 elements:

- Ontology - the nature of reality
- Epistemology - the relationship between the enquirer and knowledge
- Methodology - the means by which the knowledge is gained

In this research study, the meaning assumed for the word 'paradigm' is "*the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator not only in choices of methods but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways*" (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p. 105).

Ontology focuses on 'what exists', while epistemology considers what human beings can know about what exists (Huff, 2008). An ontological position refers to a researchers' assumptions about the best way of establishing the 'truth' of the world (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). According to Burrell and Morgan's (1979) seminal work, by combining different ontological and epistemological positions, a number of different

philosophical paradigms can be outlined. In general, the results of different combinations of ontological and epistemological choices are classified across three general research paradigms (Guba and Lincoln, 1994): positivist, critical and interpretive. More recently, Saunders et al. (2016) summarised the five major philosophical paradigms utilised in business and management as: positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism.

5.2.1 Five Research Philosophies

In an effort to provide further insight Saunders et al (2016) discussed research paradigms on a continuum from positivism to pragmatism. Each of these five major research paradigms are summarised in the following section.

- **Positivism**

The positivist perspective is based on a realist ontology that assumes that observations are theory neutral and the role of research is to make generalizations to account for what is observed. From this research perspective, there is only one true social reality experienced by all sets of actors. The social world is made up of solid, granular and unchanging ‘things’ including social structures and phenomenon (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In this paradigm, epistemologically the social world exisits externally and its properties can be measured through objective methods rather than being inferred subjectively. Unidirectional cause - effect relations exist and can be identified and tested through hypothesis-testing-orientated deductive analysis. Research based within this paradigm draws on the assumption that context is not important (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

- **Critical Realism**

The philosophy of critical realism focuses on explaining what we see and experience, in terms of the underlying structures of reality that may shape events. For critical realists, reality is an important philosophical consideration, with an objective, structured and layered ontology being crucial (Fleetwood, 2005). The ontological position of critical realism is that there is indeed a reality independent of the observer, but that reality is nevertheless partly socially constructed and thereby not easily measurable (Easton, 2010). Epistemologically, critical research recognises that knowledge is historically situated and that social facts are social constructions agreed on by people rather than existing independently (Bhaskar, 1989). Critical research is often noted as a middle ground between positivism/objectivism and interpretivism/relativism which recognises the existence of knowledge independent of humans and, at the same time, recognises the socially embedded and fallible nature of scientific inquiry (Reed, 2005). Research based within the critical realism philosophy recognizes that there is no universal or one-size-fits-all solution to a problem and that problems are complex and multi-layered (Oladele et al.,2013). Emancipatory objectives may form part of a critical realist agenda. Danermark (2002, p.42) pointed out that '*a critical stance often takes its starting point in notions that improvements in society is possible'*. The implication of this world view is that when phenomena are under investigation is may be possible to identify how features may be influenced to in order to ameliorate harmful effects or enhance beneficial effects (Haigh et al., 2019).

- **Interpretivism**

Interpretivism emphasises that humans are different from physical phenomena because they create meanings. Interpretivists study these meanings. Research within the

interpretive paradigm is based on a subjective ontology (Leitch et al., 2010). Epistemologically, the viewpoint within the interpretivist paradigm is that knowledge of reality is a social construction by human actors (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The purpose of interpretive research is to create new, richer understandings and interpretation of social worlds and contexts looking at phenomenona from the perspectives of different groups of people (Saunders et al., 2016). Focusing on complexity, richness and multiple interpretations interpretivism is explicitly subjectivist (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). A key tenet of the interpretivisit paradigm is that context is vital for knowledge and knowing, and that contextual factors need to be taken into consideration in any pursuit of understanding (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

- **Postmodernism**

This philosophical perspective can often be observed as a reaction to the positivist perspective and is often noted as the "turn to discourse" or "linguistic turn" in research. According to Saunders et al. (2016), postmodernists go even further than interpretivists in their critique of positivism and objectivism, attributing significant importance to the role of langugage. Ontology within the post modernism perspective may be difficult to ascertain, although most postmodernists will admit the centrailty of discourse in the discursive construction of the world. Some post modernists argue that the world is entirely socially constructed by the human mind or as Berger & Luckmann (1966, p.242) suggested, the world "*lies in the eyes of the beholder*". From an epistemological perspective, for postmodernists multiple knowledge claims can be arrived at via human ingenuity and creativity.

- **Pragmatism**

The pragmatic paradigm strives to reconcile both objectivism and subjectivism by providing a worldview which provides methods or research that are seen to be appropriate for studying a phenomenon at hand. From a pragmatic perspective, the most important determinant for research design and strategy is the research problem and research question being addressed. From an ontological perspective, the pragmatic paradigm observes a non-singular reality, "*there is no single point of view and there may be multiple realites*" (Saunders et al., 2016, p.142). To pragmatists a relational epistemology is applied whereby "relationships in research are best determined by what the researcher deems appropriate to that study" (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017, p.21).

The preceding discussion outlined how the major philosophies have different ways of defining what is reality and how it can be known and understood. Table 5.1 provides a visual summary of this discussion whereby the five major research paradigms are compared in terms of ontology, epistemology, axiology and research methodology. From a research study perspective, no philosophy is considered more superior to others, rather the choice of philosophy depends on the purpose of the study, the research question and the researcher's worldview. Philosophical choice is an important consideration as it defines a researcher's philosophical orientation which has implications for decision making in the research process including (as evident from Table 5.1) the choice of methodology and methods (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). The choice of paradigm which underpins this study is discussed in the proceeding section.

Table 5.1 - Five Major Research Philosophies

Fundamental Beliefs	Positivism	Critical Realism	Interpretivism	Postmodernism	Pragmatism
Ontology: position on the nature of reality	Real, External, objective and independent of social actors	Stratified/layered (the empirical, the actual and the real) Objective structures Causal mechanisms	Complex, rich. Socially constructed through language. Multiple meanings and interpretations	Complex rich, Nominal. Socially constructed through power relations. Some meanings and interpretations are dominated by others	External, multiple, view chosen to best achieve an answer to the research question.
Epistemology: the view on what constitutes acceptable knowledge	Scientific method Observable and measurable facts Law-like generalisations reducing phenomena to simplest elements.	Relativism (subjective) Facts are social constructions Causal explanation as contribution	Theories and concepts too simplistic Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus on narratives, stories, perceptions & interpretations. New understandings as contribution	Truth and knowledge are decided by dominant ideologies Focuses on absences, silences and oppressed Exposure of power relations and challenge of dominant views as contribution	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge depending on research question.
Axiology: the role of values in research.	Value-free. Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance.	Value-laden research. Research is value laden; researcher acknowledges bias by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing. Researcher reflexive to minimise bias	Value bound. Researcher is part of what is being researched (subjective). Researcher interpretation key to contribution. Researcher reflexive	Value-constituted research. Researcher and research embedded in power relations. Researcher radically reflexive	Value-driven research. Value plays a large role in interpreting results. Objective and subjective viewpoints adopted
Research Methodology: the model behind the research process.	Typically, Quantitative	Qualitative or quantitative.	Qualitative	Qualitative	Quantitative and qualitative (mixed or multi-method design)

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2015); Lincoln et al. (2011); Saunders et al., (2016)

5.2.2 Study Research Philosophy

There have been calls for greater attention to ontological and epistemological issues within entrepreneurship research (Busenitz et al., 2003; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). From a philosophical perspective, there is a significant focus in entrepreneurship research in positivist and functionalist paradigms (Jennings et al 2005; Grant and Perren, 2002; Pittaway, 2005; Pittaway and Tunstall, 2016). In the main these paradigms imply a realist ontology that social reality exists outside of an individual's interaction with it and can be 'discovered'. Anderson and Starnawska (2008) suggested that the dominant positivism paradigm within entrepreneurship research produces too narrow a view of entrepreneurship. Efforts to define entrepreneurship within the positivist paradigm have resulted in a spectrum of definitions the most prominent being the 'creation of a new business' (Low and Macmillan, 1988). Such definitions require that entrepreneurship be conceptualised as a market or economic activity, implying that entrepreneurship can only occur through trade and thus requires the existence of some social 'reality' (Packard, 2017). Entrepreneurship research leaning towards positivist approaches (Grant and Perren, 2002; Jennings et al., 2005) may minimise and remove context from analysis (Hjorth, 2008) leading to the development of a research field that is too scientific and not recognising that the domain is social scientific.

As defined in Chapter Three of this study, this research adopts a broader perspective of entrepreneurship as enterprising behaviour that can be applied in a number of situations, not just in a new venture creation context (Gibb, 2008). In particular, this study is concerned with supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities that may not traditionally engage in entrepreneurial activity. Viewing entrepreneurship from this perspective requires a different approach than is

supported through the positivist paradigm. Despite the preponderance of entrepreneurship research in positivist paradigms, there has been growth in critical realist and interpretive approaches within the field (Anderson and Starnawska, 2008; Cope, 2005; Fletcher, 2007, 2012; Leitch et al., 2010; Packard, 2017). Interpretive studies in entrepreneurship seek to explore entrepreneurial experience and meaning in social contexts through approaches drawn from social constructionism, interactionism and symbolic discourse analysis (Chell et al., 1997; Fletcher, 2006; Korsgaard and Neergaard, 2010). Embracing components of both positivist and interpretivist philosophies, there has been a growth in contemporary entrepreneurship studies from a critical realist perspective. Blundel (2007, p.58) advocated for critical realism as an appropriate mode for conducting entrepreneurship research. He argued that:

- Critical realism can promote much-needed contextualization of entrepreneurial phenomena in research studies;
- Critical realism can facilitate greater theoretical integration between disciplines and across multiple levels of analysis;
- Critical realism can enhance the explanatory potential of existing qualitative research techniques, including the case study approaches; and
- as a consequence, critical realism has the potential to contribute more 'useful' knowledge than rival paradigms.

Critical realist studies consider the contextual, sociological and institutional factors that impact upon entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activity to guide theory and practice (Aldrich, 2010; Mole and Mole, 2010; Hu, 2018; Hu, 2020).

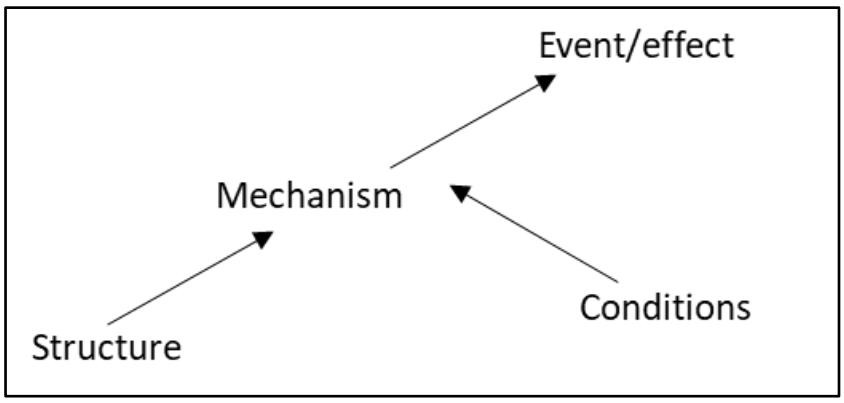
In the field of higher education studies, educational research often suffers from a divide between positivist and interpretivist research philosophies (Pring, 2010; Sayer,

2010). A rigorous and allegedly objective search for ‘truth’ and general laws is often put against an examination of the subjective viewpoints that individuals express when trying to make sense of their own unique context dependent experience. This leads to a situation where attempts to quantify the subjective and meaning-laden experience of education are deemed absolutely necessary by some and absolutely unacceptable by others (Pring, 2010). In order to remedy this ‘dualism’ in philosophical orientation, there has been a growth in entrepreneurial education studies within higher education adopting critical realist approaches (Jones, 2010; Lansdell, 2009, Lackéus, 2016).

Considering the importance of contextual, cultural and institutional factors within the research field of this study of both higher education community engagement (Benneworth et al, 2018) and entrepreneurial education (Maritz and Brown, 2013; Thomassen et al, 2019), this research identifies with a critical realist philosophy as outlined by Bhaskar (1979); Little (1991); and Sayer (2010). While Bhaskar is the initiator of the critical realism movement, Sayer’s account of critical realism has been deemed the most detailed and comprehensive (Easton, 2010) and Little’s account of the key term “causal mechanism” has been deemed particularly accessible (Hedström and Ylikoski, 2010). Critical realism could be viewed as an intermediate position between the extremes of positivism and interpretivism (Burgoyne, 2011), thereby constituting a potential bridging research philosophy. A critical realist stance suggests that the world is, in principle, real but impossible for humans to truly perceive objectively (Bordogna, 2020). Accordingly, Bhaskar (1989) argued that reality is stratified into the empirical, the actual and the real. The empirical represents events that are can be observed or experienced. The actual constitutes events and non-events which may come about as a result of the real but many never be observed. Meanwhile, the real represents the

underlying causal structures and generative mechanisms with lasting properties which give rise to the actual (Sanders et al, 2016). Hence, Sayer (2000, p.15) offers a critical realist model of causation represented in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 - Critical Realist Model of Causation



Source: Sayer (2000)

Instead of claiming that cause C led to effect E governed by a general macro level laws, a causal mechanism model stipulates that there is a series of causal mechanisms and conditions which may lead from cause C to effect E (Little,1991). Elster (1989) has described it as an approach for opening up a black box to show "*the cogs and wheels of an internal machinery*" (Hedström and Ylikoski, 2010, p.51). Structured entities (an entity may be an organisation, people, relationships, attitudes, resources, inventions, ideas, technology among others (Haigh et al., 2019)) generate causal mechanisms which in turn bring about events. This causal relationship is not deterministic, however, as their actualization depends on other conditions which may happen to be active in the situation (Blundel, 2007). In this study, the integration of HEI community engagement, entrepreneurial education and disadvantaged communities may be seen as the structured entities which generate causal mechanisms which in turn may lead to the development of inclusive entrepreneurial education initiatives.

To discern the causal mechanisms driving phenomena, a critical realist philosophy may utilise a process called retroduction. Retroduction is a "*mode of inference in which events are explained by postulating (and identifying) mechanisms which may be capable of producing them*" (Sayer, 2010, p 107). Retroduction means "moving backwards" and it relies on reasoning and imagination to construct a model of the structures and mechanisms that may be responsible for creating an event or phenomena (Blaikie, 2007). Retroduction and abduction share a close relationship, often being used interchangeably (Peirce, 1931). This is further discussed later in the chapter.

The centrality of identifying mechanisms to explain why or how things happen means that critical realists put theory first. As explored in the earlier chapters of the literature review, this study is embedded within an emerging research field of HEI community entrepreneurial education. This required the integration of theoretical insight across three fields of study to gain insight into addressing the research question. This fits within the critical realism philosophy which seeks to avoid being trapped within silos of single disciplinary views and may adopt multi-disciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary perspective to understand complex social phenomena (Haigh et al, 2019). The conceptual framework presented at the end of Chapter Four represented the integration of several theoretical constructs across the three fields of study to theoretically provide insight into the research question. The next phase of this research involves an empirical study to elaborate and gain insight on the framework from relevant stakeholders. The proceeding sections of this chapter outline the subsequent research design decisions based on the critical realist philosophy of this study.

5.3 Approach to Theory Development

There are three approaches to theory development; inductive, deductive, and abductive (Saunders et al, 2016). According to Huff (2008) deductive studies start with empirical statements about pertinent phenomena. These statements are translated into hypothesis using the language of well-established theories. Subsequently, observations are made to see whether or not they are true. Philosophically, this falls within the positivist paradigm. Alternately, Huff (2008) describes inductive studies as those where the meaning is linked to a specific observer in a specific situation. Typically, this approach underlines an interpretivist worldview. The researcher starts with specific observations, subsequently, he/she begins to detect patterns and regularities and formulates some tentative hypotheses to explore; the researcher finally ends up developing some general conclusions or theories. Instead of moving from theory to data (as in deduction) or data to theory (as in induction), an abductive approach moves back and forth, in effect combining deduction and induction (Suddaby, 2006).

To develop inferences in the theorising of mechanisms critical realists adopt abductive reasoning by using known premises to generate testable conclusions (Saunders et al., 2016) Accordingly, Pierce (1905) argues that discovery rests on abductive inference. However, Pierce's use of abduction and retroduction as synonyms in earlier works, and his later attempts to differentiate the two have made it a source of confusion. Retroduction and abduction are believed to be complementary modes of inference (Danermark et al., 2005). Chiasson (2005) interpreted Peirce's later work to conclude that abduction is an aspect of retroduction, which is based on historical context. Davidsson (2016, p.59) argues that good entrepreneurship research '*is often a matter of abductive wrestling between theory and data'*. The result of an abductive approach can be theory

generation or theory modification, including the incorporation of existing theory where appropriate (Saunders et al, 2016). By showing how something might be, rather than providing that it must be a certain way (McEvoy & Richards, 2006), an abductive approach to inference serves to broaden knowledge and stimulate the research process on an ongoing basis (Habermas, 1978).

Van Maanen et al., (2007) identify three broad implications of abduction in research. Firstly, abduction implies that, the data with which researchers work has to be detailed, rich and complex so that causal conjectures can be explained in a plausible manner. Secondly, generating explanations requires that researchers link their results to a conceptual model or framework that they can move back and forth in substantiating interpretations. This argument lends support to the development of the integrated conceptual framework presented in Chapter Four. Thirdly, a principle of opposites needs to be followed whereby qualitative data is counted and classified during analysis, while quantitative data needs to be qualitatively analysed for patterns that do not fit the general picture. Given the above implications, an abductive approach to theory development is deemed suitable for this study in developing insight into how HEIs can support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. Moreover, it is suggested that when studies are in a nascent research field (of which this study is), scholarship should adopt an open-ended, phenomena-driven approach to inquiry, marked by abductive reasoning (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

5.4 Methodological Choice

The methodological approach that informs the research design should fit within the study's philosophical assumptions, which links the research questions, how to collect

and analyse data, and how to present the findings (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Yin, 2015; Creswell, 2014). A critical realist stance does not reject quantitative methods such as the use of statistics but argues that it is important to examine deeper causal processes at work in the world (Roberts, 2014). Critical realism embraces a relativist epistemology, wherein the researcher's knowledge of the worlds is socially constructed (Miller and Tsang, 2011; Krauss, 2005) as in interpretivist research. Developing a deep understanding of causal processes can be facilitated through qualitative methods (Roberts, 2014). Unlike quantitative methods, qualitative methods refuse to bury the '*voice'* of research subjects beneath piles of anonymous standardised data (Ragin 1994. p.81). To answer the key research question and seek to understand the development of tailored community entrepreneurial education initiatives, detailed insight is required from multiple perspectives both within the HEI setting and also outside the HEI within the community. As such, it demands a qualitative interpretivist approach with subjective insight to fully capture the experiences, beliefs and perspectives of key actors involved (Gergen, 2015). As discussed in Chapter two, it is often the perspective of the HEI that is foremost within higher education studies (Escrigas et al., 2014). This study sets out to address this gap by engaging widely with stakeholders both internal and external to the HEI. Willis (2007, p.194) suggested that a relativism epistemology facilitates the incorporation of multiple perspectives as *"different people and different groups have different perceptions of the world*".

There is a documented need for qualitative research in entrepreneurship that allows for an in-depth study of a given phenomenon, mobilising creative ways of producing and analysing empirical data (Bygrave, 2007; Gartner and Birley 2002; Neergaard and Ulhoi, 2007). According to Hlady-Rispal and Jouison-Laffitte (2014, p

594) "*qualitative methods are used to describe, decode, and advance the understanding of intertwined past, present, or future eclectic data*". They capture context, richness, and diversity and are appropriate to the advancement of entrepreneurship research (Hindle, 2004). Moreover, in the field of higher education studies, qualitative methods are widely used as a way of understanding the experiences of students and teachers in a variety of contexts (Thanh et al., 2015). The strengths of critical realism for qualitative research lie in its desire to render complexity intelligible, its explanatory focus, its reconciliation of agency and structural factors, and its ability to recognise the existence of wider knowledge while respecting the importance of social meaning to humans (Clarke, 2008). Given the above implications, a qualitative approach was deemed suitable for this study.

5.5 Research Strategy

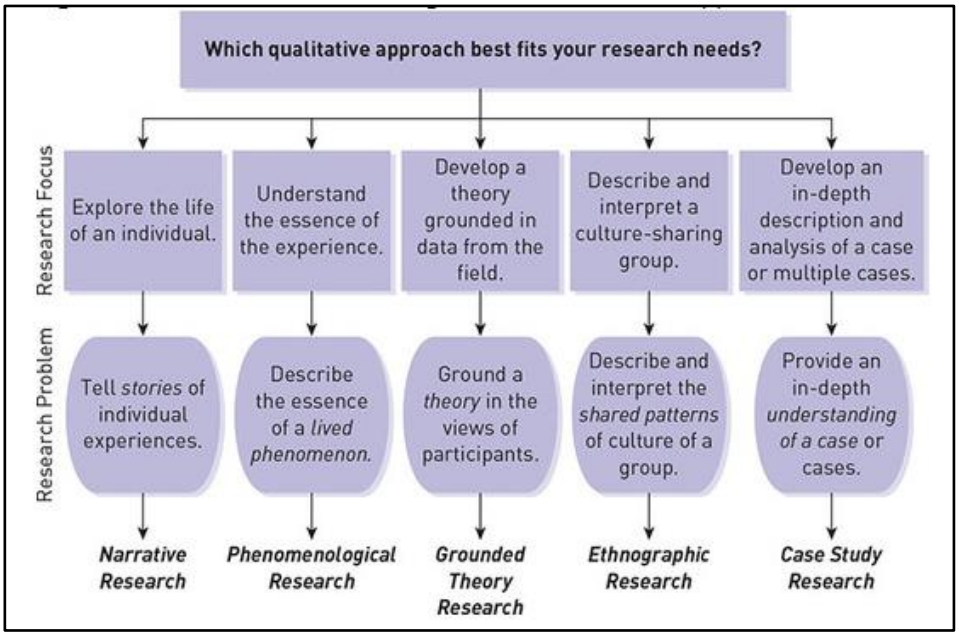
The term 'research methodology' is understood as a strategy for inquiry which moves from the underlying philosophy of a study to the design of the research process and the subsequent data collection and analysis. So far on this methodological journey, it has been outlined that this research study aligns with a critical realist philosophy, the approach to theory development is abductive and that findings are generated through qualitative data collection and analysis. According to the literature, given the variance of philosophical perspectives there are a number of qualitative research methodologies (Creswell and Poth, 2018).

5.5.1 Qualitative Research Strategies Explored

The main characteristics of the five qualitative research strategies are explored in the following subsections and illustrated in Figure 5.3. These are enriched by some

reflection upon their potential suitability for investigating the key research questions of this research study.

Figure -5.3 Five Qualitative Approaches



Source: Creswell and Poth (2018)

- **Narrative research**

Like much of qualitative research, narrative inquiry explores life experiences. It describes and analyses these experiences through the language of 'story'. This methodology has been generally defined as a specific type of qualitative design in which "*narrative is understood as a spoken or written text giving account of an event/action or series of events/actions, chronologically connected*" (Czarniawska, 2004, p.17). Biographical studies, autobiographies and life histories are common forms of narratives. Analysing an individual's narrative is not considered as a suitable strategy for addressing the research question. Thus, a narrative approach can be excluded from the choice of a suitable research methodology.

- **Phenomenological Research**

Whereas a narrative study reports the stories or experiences of a single individual or several individuals, a phenomeonological study describes "*the common meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon*" (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p. 43). The basic purpose of phenomenology is to analyse individual experiences with a phenomenon and formulate a description of the universal essence. Whilst at first sight this method could be thought as a suitable method for this study, phenomenology has a main focus on describing phenomena (Moustakas, 1994). This research study aims to go beyond the pure description of lived experience of social actors to understand the considerations in the development of a tailored HEI programme. The main contribution is expected to be reflected in the interpretation and analysis of such experiences and how that might address the gap in knowledge that this study addresses. As a result, phenomenology is not believed to be suitable for the purpose of this research study.

- **Grounded Theory**

While narrative research focuses on individual stories told by participants and phenomenology emphasies the common experiences for a number of individuals, the intent of a "*grounded theory study is to move beyond description and to generate or discover a theory, a unifed theoretical explanation*" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p.65) for a process or an action (Creswell and Poth, 2018). It is seen as a powerful tool for rigorous theory development and is defined as a systematic methodology involving the discovery of theory through the analysis of data (Martin and Turner, 1986). This theory is believed to be grounded in the analysis of actual settings and processes, with the theory developed from the participants' experiences of the phenomenon under investigation. A

methodology based on the principles of grounded theory can use any form or combination of methods so long as the theory produced is inductive, has contextual qualities that can be generalised, and informs both theory and practice. From a theory development perspective, grounded theory, mainly follows an inductive approach, which is not congruent with the reality of the abductive approach for this study, although there has been some discussion in the grounded theory literature of abductive approaches within grounded theory (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012). However, a grounded theory approach is deemed not suitable to meet the needs of this study.

- **Ethnographic Study**

According to Creswell, (2007, p.90) "*an ethnographer is interested in examining shared patterns and the unit of analysis is larger than that of a grounded theory study*". Hence, the focus of ethnographic research resides upon a cultural group. According to the literature, these groups are typcially large. A key element of ethnography is that people in a group are brought together and observed over time. Like an anthropologist, an ethnographer spends a long time in the field and "*immerses himself in the life of the people he studies*"(Lewis, 2004, p.380). The final goal is to place the phenomenon studied in its social and cultural context. Therefore, ethnography is a way of studying a culture-sharing group involving "*extended observations of the group, most often through participant observation"*. In relation to this research study, an ethnographic approach was rejected as input is required from a number of different societal groups both inside and outside the university setting. Moreover, participant observation is a commonly used data collection technique through ethography. Whilst an element of observation may provide insight and

address the objectives of this study, relying on this technique alone may have limitations in the context of this study.

- **Case Study**

Although there are numerous definitions, Yin (2014, p.13) defines the scope of a case study as follows: "*a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident"*. Case study research can reside within positivist, interpretive or critical paradigms. Case study research aims at understanding an issue, problem, or phenomenon using the case as a specific illustration (Stake, 2005). Thus, case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (i.e. a case in a specific setting/context, or multiple bounded systems over time). This investigation is conducted through in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information. The critical realist perspective supports case study research (Easton, 2010) as it unearths and tries to explain a phenomenon through the study of a case in depth and comprehensively (Elger, 2010; Ackroyd, 2009). Thus, a case study methodology is considered a good fit with the context and aim of this research study. Case study facilitates: (1) Engaging with multiple social actors investigating the phenomenon understudy; (2) uncovering the interpretation and insight of the social actors of the phenomenon under investigation; and (3) qualitatively generating thick descriptions to develop new theory.

5.5.2 Rationale for Case Study Research Strategy and Design

Following the above analysis of qualitative methodological approaches, it was decided that a case study research approach would best fit the research needs of this study. Following the researcher's week-long immersion in a case-study course at the University of Oslo, Norway (July 2017), this decision was confirmed as a suitable choice. Case study is a common research method in many diverse disciplines including psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, business, education and community planning (Yin, 2014). According to Flyvbjerg (2011), as a strategy for methodological research the case study has been around as long as recorded history. Historical examples of case study use stems back to the early nineteenth century with the biography of Charles Darwin (Stewart, 2014).

Case study as a qualitatively orientated research approach has a long history in entrepreneurship studies (Alvarez et al., 2015; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2016; Van Maanen, 2011). The case study method has been deemed especially appropriate when exploring new entrepreneurial topics or novel examples, particularly in instances where existing theory seems inadequate. In the context of this research study, it is noteworthy that case study is also one of the most frequently used qualitative research methodologies in educational research (Yazan, 2015). In the field of higher education, case study is commonly utilised as both an educational and research tool (Harland, 2014). In the context of entrepreneurial education, Blenker et al. (2014, p.17) proposed case studies as a promising research strategy as it enabled researchers "*to focus on particular activities or elements in their contextual embeddedness, and make it possible to explore the systematic process".*

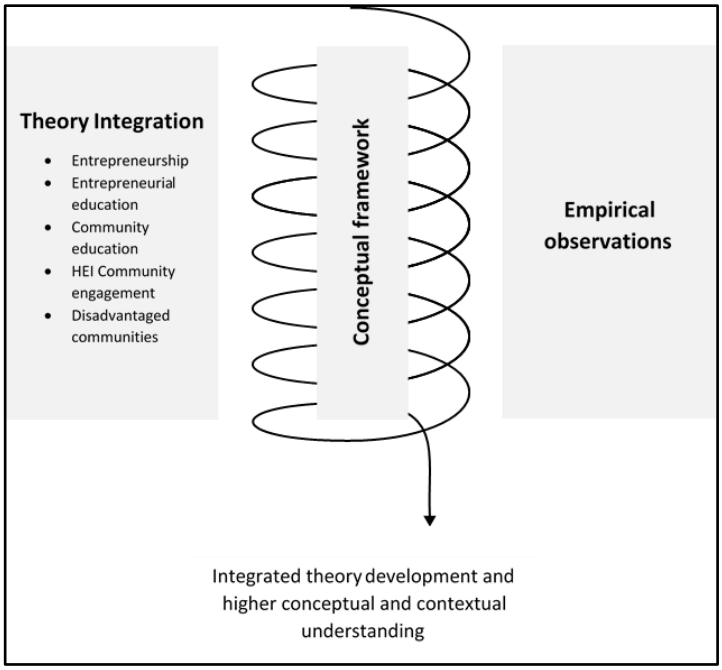
Case study design is presented in the research literature as a strategy of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), an empirical inquiry (Yin, 2014), a comprehensive research approach (Creswell, 2014) and an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded system (Merriam, 2009). Stake (2010) preferred to view case study not as a methodology but instead as an approach to researching the particularity and complexity of a unit of study. Unlike other methodologies, case study is not assigned to a fixed ontological, epistemological or methodological position (Rosenberg and Yates, 2007). Philosophically, a case study can be orientated from a realist or positivist through to a relativist or interpretivist perspective. A critical realist perspective supports case study research (Easton, 2010) as it unearths and tries to explain a phenomenon through the study of a case in depth and comprehensively (Teehankee and Silapan, 2017). While multiple definitions of a case study abound, Piekkari et al. (2009 p. 569) provided a broad definition of case study as a research strategy that *'examines, through the use of a variety of data sources, a phenomenon in its naturalistic context, with the purpose of "confronting" theory with the empirical world'*. This definition of case study is adopted for purpose of this study.

Overall, a case study approach is deemed the best approach to answer the research questions of this study as it: (1) investigates a contemporary phenomenon; (2) generates or contributes to theory; (3) raises how/why questions asked in natural setting (no controls); (4) involves multiple sources of information; (5) requires different levels of analysis; and (6) involves a number of disciplines. In addition to these features of this particular study which makes a case study approach appropriate, there is a growing body of work in both higher education and entrepreneurship studies adopting the case method as a suitable approach (Henry and Foss, 2015; Kenny, 2015; Seymour and Topaz, 2017).

Moreover, Vincent and O'Mahoney (2016) described case study as the most common and arguably the most useful form of critical realism research.

In line with Yin (2014), this study followed a revelatory single case study design. A revelatory case study is one that reveals a phenomenon hitherto unexplored (Yin, 2014). The unique opportunity provided by the selected case study in this research study is further explored in the next section. Easton (2010) states that a suitable research approach for critical realists is to employ a pragmatism-based process of abduction (Peirce, 1905). Dubois and Gadde (2002, p.554) have described abductive research in case study as a process where *"theoretical framework, empirical fieldwork, and case analysis evolve simultaneously".*

Figure 5.4 –Research Journey



Source: Adapted from Dubois and Gadde (2002)

Figure 5.4 illustrates the research journey within this study. It illustrates the journey well, showing an arrow describing the process leading up to the articulation of an evidence-based framework. The evolving conceptual framework was reshaped many times

throughout the process, representing "*articulated preconceptions*" (Dubois and Gadde, 2002, p.555) that were successively revised based on discoveries made through empirical fieldwork, analysis and theory-informed interpretation in a visible way.

It has been suggested that the rationale for selecting a case study research strategy is that it is particularly suitable for illuminating and extending the relationship of the constructs which make up a conceptual framework (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007). The underlying principle in selecting appropriate cases is preference for cases that are information rich in respect to the research question and topics under investigation. The case under study in this research was selected using purposeful sampling described by Patton, (2002, p.273) as follows:

> *The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the term purposeful sampling*

Purposeful sampling was suited to developing a comprehensive understanding of inclusive HEI Community entrepreneurial education.

The case study approach is particularly useful to employ when there is a need to obtain an in-depth appreciation of an issue, event or phenomenon of interest, in its natural real-life context (Crowe et al, 2011). A key strength of the case study method is its flexibility and adaptability that allows single or multiple methods of data collection to be used to investigate a research problem (Cavaye, 1996). This was deemed important for this study given the need to understand the phenomenon from the perspectives of those within the HEI, more broadly in the ecosystem, and disadvantaged communities. Multiple data collection methods facilitate equity of voice and perspective, which is particularly

important in the study of underrepresented communities in social science research (Knight et al, 2009). Moreover, case study as a qualitatively orientated research design is well documented across the three fields of this research study (Yazan 2015; Harland, 2014; Blenker et al., 2014). In line with Yin (2014), this study follows a revelatory single case study design of an Irish HEI with a long history of community engagement. This approach is deemed useful in situations where the state of the art is emergent rather than established (as in the phenomenon under study). The selected case study for this study is explored in the proceeding section.

5.5.3 Case Study – Technological University Dublin (City Campus)

In the context of this study and the conceptual framework presented in Chapter Four, the selected case study is that of an Irish Higher Education Institution, Technological University Dublin (TU Dublin). This section explores the background of TU Dublin, an overview of community engagement at TU Dublin, insight on entrepreneurship and community engagement at TU Dublin, and the strategy behind the new campus development at Grangegorman.

- **Background**

TU Dublin was formally established on January 1st, 2019, the culmination of more than seven years of collaboration between the three partner Institutes – Institute of Technology Blanchardstown, Dublin Institute of Technology and Institute of Technology Tallaght. With a history stretching back over one hundred and thirty years, TU Dublin is a pioneer of technological higher education with alumni playing important roles in innovation, economic and social development, and culture and education, both in Ireland

and internationally. The three amalgamating institutions (DIT, ITB and ITT) have a long history of engagement and partnership with many constituencies in the community, in business and enterprise, in the professions and with many other stakeholders across the greater Dublin region. These links are maintained and strengthened by the technological university designation. TU Dublin values engagement on a par with its other missions, that it is accessible and practical in orientation, and that it is prepared to synergistically exploit the resources it has gathered to fulfil its teaching and research missions. TU Dublin has an entrepreneurial and engaged ethos and one of the primary aims of its wider engagement mission is to provide accessible opportunities to those who are economically or socially disadvantaged, irrespective of whether that disadvantage has disability, economic or socio-cultural causes. At a glance TU Dublin has:

- 28,500+ Students (Ireland's largest HE provider)
    - 38% STEM
    - 23% Business & Law
    - 19% Arts & Humanities
    - 11% Services
    - 9% Health & Welfare
- 13% of all Higher Education students in Ireland
- 3,350+ International Students
- Four Faculties:
    - College of Arts and Tourism
    - College of Science and Health
    - College of Engineering and Built Environment
    - College of Business.
- Flagship campus at Grangegorman (City Campus), and campuses in Blanchardstown and Tallaght

Simultaneously to the development of Ireland's first technological university, TU Dublin (in conjunction with the Grangegorman Development Agency, Health Service

Executive and Dublin City Council) is developing a new unified campus which is located at Grangegorman in Dublin's North West Inner city. The campus brings together the University's core and supporting activities in a single environment, integrating with the strategic development of Dublin City and providing a range of facilities for Students and Staff, for industry and the wider community. The North West Inner city is one of the most socio-economically disadvantage areas in Dublin. Some socioeconomic statistics are highlighted below:

- In the area, recorded populations of non-Irish nationals are well above the national average and the average for Dublin City.
- The unemployment rate in many parts of the area is above average
- Families headed by a lone parent (national figures) saw their deprivation rate increase significantly from 44.1% in 2009 to 56% in 2011.
- The GDA area has seven primary schools, three secondary schools and one high support school. All but one of the schools in the GDA are designated as 'disadvantaged' under the Integrated School Support Programme (SSP) and under the Delivering Equality of Opportunities in Schools (DEIS) programme.
- The population of pre-school children increased by 17.9% in the last five years.
- In 2011, a total of 26.43% of all people in the area had only lower secondary education or lower.

- **Community Engagement at TU Dublin (City Campus)**

TU Dublin is renowned for its extensive community and civic engagement and has a dedicated access and civic engagement office with 25 staff. Civic engagement at TU Dublin means staff and/or students collaborating with and in the community, with the support and recognition of the university, to generate reciprocal and mutual gain for both the university and community. In using the term 'community' TU Dublin is particularly

mindful of the need to collaborate with underserved communities. The university has a long tradition of making education accessible to all by widening participation in higher education through:

- Enhancing the quality of TU Dublin education experiences
- Building partnerships with civil society, communities and other education organisations to co-deliver transformative learning opportunities and to co-create and exchange knowledge
- Having a positive impact on Irish society by addressing key societal issues through better policy and practice

TU Dublin has a long tradition of engaging with its surrounding communities, often located in socio-economically disadvantaged neighbourhoods. Highlights of the range of activities are illustrated in Table 5.2 (overleaf). TU Dublin aims to work with communities from a shared understanding of social exclusion, disadvantage and challenges in accessing education, and how key concepts such as widening participation, civic engagement and universal design for learning can address these issues.

- **Entrepreneurship and Community Engagement at TU Dublin**

The College of Business places a great emphasis on excellence in learning, teaching, research and support for entrepreneurship. The College of Business hosts The Institute for Minority Entrepreneurship (IME) which was established to offer disadvantaged and minority communities' equal opportunity through entrepreneurial education and training. The primary objective of the IME is to bring significant benefit to its target audiences by researching the needs of these minority entrepreneurship groups, developing appropriate training programmes and materials, and delivering these programs in the most effective manner possible for each individual group.

Table - 5.2 TU Dublin Community Engagement (City Campus)

Teaching and learning-focused engagement:

- Curriculum-based collaboratively designed research and learning projects with community partners involving 900 students annually across TU Dublin City Campus on 45 programmes and over 100 community partners.
- Development and delivery of programmes in regional locations with limited access to higher education, such as BA in Visual Arts delivered offsite on Sherkin Island.
- Collaboration with a range of charities and non-for-profits on programme provision.
- Delivering optometry training and eyecare through the Mozambique Eyecare Project.
- Interactive news website for 500 primary school students run by Journalism students, supporting literacy development in primary school curriculum.
- Student transition and retention support programmes for students from underrepresented backgrounds.

Research- and policy-focused engagement:

- Collaboratively designed research projects with a range of community partners; several funded PhDs co-supervised by community partners.
- Involvement in EU-funded research projects promoting engagement of researchers with societal groups and organisations: FP7-funded Public Engagement in Research and Research Engagement with Society (PERARES) project; Horizon 2020-funded Enhancing Responsible Research and Innovation through Curricula in Higher Education (EnRRICH) project.
- Active membership of a range of community engagement networks, including Living Knowledge Network for community-based research, Campus Engage (Irish network for community engagement in higher education), Talloires Network (awarded a McJannet Prize for Global Citizenship, 2011). Active membership of steering group and policy working group of Campus Engage and hosting 7th Living Knowledge conference in 2016.

Widening Participation - outreach and partnerships with other education sectors

- Wide range of access entry routes.
- Students delivering supervised study programmes for second level students
- Delivery of TU Dublin City Campus music outreach programme at primary and second level in a disadvantaged area for over 300 children annually.
- ICT training for teachers to support curriculum delivery.
- Provision of career guidance materials for 2nd level to support HE transitions
- Taster programmes for socio-economically disadvantaged adults and children.

Volunteering and co-curricular activities

- Student volunteering activities with a wide range of charities and organisations.
- Staff volunteering on Boards of Management of community organisations.
- Student peer mentoring programmes.

Other mutually beneficial collaboration with communities

- Establishment of a multi-agency and community forum in Grangegorman area to bring the benefits of campus development to the local community and support area regeneration, as well as a local Labour Clause in building contracts; jointly securing funding to deliver programmes to address community goals and gaps in service provision (e.g. national Area Based Childhood Programme).
- Community representatives on TU Dublin City Campus advisory boards and at some programme reviews/validations by professional bodies.
- Use of TU Dublin City campus facilities by local schools and community groups.
- Conferring of TU Dublin's President's Community Fellowships as part of annual graduation ceremonies.

Source: Bernard and Bates (2017)

Given the significant proportion of non-Irish national living in the Grangegorman area, the Institute has been highlighted as having a key role to play in the development of appropriate training programmes in entrepreneurship in the area.

- **Grangegorman Campus Strategy**

The Grangegorman Development is a national flagship urban regeneration initiative bringing economic and social renewal to Dublin's North Inner City and creating a new urban quarter for the city. The Grangegorman site is an area of approximately 73 acres on the site of the former St Brendan's psychiatric hospital, the oldest public psychiatric hospital in Ireland. The site is being developed as a single campus for TU Dublin currently located in numerous sites across the city. In addition to the TU Dublin campus, the site also provides residential mental health facilities and community healthcare for Dublin North West, and local community access and use, including a primary school, sporting facilities and a children's playground. The Grangegorman Development has been ground-breaking in Ireland in its innovative approach of putting community benefit at the heart of the project. Established in 2010, the Grangegorman Labour and Learning Forum (GLLF) is a voluntary body of representatives from statutory, community and voluntary organisations working in the area. Its key aims are to ensure that opportunities arising from the Grangegorman project will benefit and improve the quality of life for surrounding communities to counter social and economic disadvantage.

The development of Ireland's first technological university combined with the development of a new HEI campus in an inner-city community provided the researcher with a unique opportunity. Driven by International, European Union, National and

Regional policy, the TU Dublin campus development seeks to enhance its strategic role within the region. The study of TU Dublin and its local communities provides a rich and fertile ground for exploring the development of inclusive HEI community entrepreneurial education programmes. The study occurs at a unique moment in time to influence HEI policy and university practice in tandem with theoretical knowledge contribution.

5.6 Data Collection – Techniques and Procedures

One of the strengths of the case study method is its flexibility and adaptability that allows single or multiple methods of data collection to be used to investigate a research problem (Cavaye, 1996). A wide variety of data collection methods can be used including direct observation, participant observation, interviews, focus groups, documentary sources, archival records and physical artefacts (Cassell et al., 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). Using multiple sources of data and multiple participants is preferable in order to triangulate data and to allow significant insights to emerge (Stake, 2005). In this study the utilisation of multiple sources of data collection through case study is deemed a multi-method qualitative approach (Saunders et al, 2016).

According to Denzin (2012, p.85) the term triangulation *"has been used, abused and misinterpreted*" since it was first advocated in qualitative research. Denzin (2012) proposed that triangulation involves the use of multiple forms of evidence to gain an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon as each one yields a different picture and slice of reality. Triangulation was achieved in this study in several ways to ensure that the data collected was as rich as possible and to confirm findings. Method triangulation is the use of two or more research methods in one study (de Vries, 2020). The case study design adopted in this study facilitated method triangulation which was achieved through semi-

structured interviews, participant observation and document analysis. Site and data triangulation were achieved through gathering data from a wide range of informants including academia, policy makers, teachers, community members and members of disadvantaged communities in order to elicit rich description and provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. This can be described as 'circling reality' or providing a 360-degree perspective (Gangeness and Yurkovich, 2006) on the development of HEI community engagement enterprising behaviour initiatives. The inclusion of the perspective of community members, in particular disadvantaged communities, addresses the paucity of studies documenting the perspective of community members in partnership with HEIs which well acknowledged in the academic literature (Escrigas et al, 2014; Birdsall, 2005; Bringle and Hatcher, 2002; Cruz and Giles Jr, 2000 and Sandy and Holland, 2006)

5.6.1 Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used as the main data-gathering device as this technique "*is particularly good at enabling the researcher to learn, first-hand, about people's perspectives on the subject chosen as the project focus*" (Davies, 2007, p.259). Purposive sampling was used to identify participants for this study. A purposive sample is a representative subgroup of a larger group and is meant to serve a specific need or purpose. In this case, the purposive sample included experts from several knowledge areas (HEI community engagement, enterprising behaviour, disadvantaged communities and policy experts) deemed necessary to provide insight on the phenomenon under study. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), three decisions need to be made in relation to a purposive sampling approach: (1) The decision whom to select as participants for the

study; (2) The specific type of sampling strategy; and (3) The size of the sample. By purposively selecting participants from several knowledge areas, the data was triangulated to provide a comprehensive perspective from stakeholders both within and outside the HEI on the phenomenon.

The credibility of case study research is related to the amount of detail and contextualisation that is possible when only one or a small number of focal cases is analysed; thus, it is essential to adequately represent expert opinion and perspective on the case (Malterud et al., 2015; Morse, 2000; Sandelowski, 1995). To ensure the appropriate levels of detail and contextualisation were reached, the concept of 'information power' was employed. This concept holds that as information relevant to address the study aims is gleaned from participants, lower total numbers of participants are needed. The information power concept is based on (a) the aim of the study, (b) sample specificity, (c) use of established theory, (d) quality of dialogue, and (e) analysis strategy (Malterud et al., 2015). Thus, because the aim of the study was to understand the multiple perspectives of stakeholders related to HEI community entrepreneurial education, it was necessary to purposively sample experts from both within the community and within the HEI to gain perspective on the subject. Through this sampling approach, the researcher assured strong quality of information. In line with the majority of qualitative researchers, in this study data collection and data analysis occurred simultaneously to facilitate the collection of meaningful data to effectively address the research question (Braun and Clarke, 2013; Charmaz, 2006; Creswell, 2007; Miles et al., 2014).

Interview participants were chosen based upon their expert knowledge relevant to the conceptual framework and the research questions of this study (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). In total 17 participants were interviewed (including 2 pilot interviews). The final

data utilised was made up of 4 experts of knowledge in supporting enterprising behaviour 4 experts of knowledge of disadvantaged communities; 4 experts in the field of HEI Community engagement and finally 3 contextual interviews were carried out in relation to HEI policy and the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Table 5.3 provides a more detailed breakdown of these interviewees and their background.

Table 5.3 - Study Interview Participants

Study Identification	Details	Area of Expertise	Years of Experience
Ecosystem Expert #1	Ecosystem & Policy Expert	Disadvantaged community enterprise support	30
Ecosystem Expert #2	Ecosystem & Policy Expert	Local Enterprise Supports	15
Ecosystem Expert #3	Ecosystem & Policy Expert	Engagement and Inclusion policy in Higher Education	4
EB Expert #4	Enterprising Behaviour Expert	Informal entrepreneurial education initiatives (Prison)	5
EB Expert #5	Enterprising Behaviour Expert	Enterprising behaviour & disadvantaged communities	14
EB Expert #6	Enterprising Behaviour Expert	Enterprising behaviour & ex-offenders	5
EB Expert #7	Enterprising Behaviour Expert	Enterprising behaviour - HEIs	12
HEI CE Expert #8	HEI Community Engagement Expert	HEI Community Engagement Manager & Practitioner	14
HEI CE Expert #9	HEI Community Engagement Expert	Community Engagement of HEIs in Ireland	6
HEI CE Expert #10	HEI Community Engagement Expert	HEI Management – HEI community engagement	30
HEI CE Expert #11	HEI Community Engagement Expert	HEI Community Engagement Practitioner	20
DA Expert #12	Disadvantaged Community Expert	Ethnic & immigrant minorities	25
DA Expert #13	Disadvantaged Community Expert	Prison & socio-economic disadvantage.	22
DA Expert #14	Disadvantaged Community Expert	Disabled Community	10
DA Expert #15	Disadvantaged Community Expert	Socio-economically disadvantaged communities	23

A semi-structured interview schedule was created to capture information from interviewees that would address the research questions of this study. A semi-structured design was deemed most appropriate for this study as this would guide interviewees to discuss theoretically relevant information while allowing the opportunity to introduce their own insights. Interviews took on a loosely structured format, enabling the participants to make decisions regarding which information to elaborate on. The interview guide comprised a list of themes or probe questions based on the conceptual framework that had a bearing on the research questions that the researcher raised during the interview if the participant did not do so him/herself. At the same time the researcher could pursue certain themes or questions in greater depth and also address any new areas as they emerge during the interview which offered the opportunity for "*serendipitous learnings that emerge from the unexpected turns in discourse that the questions evoke*" (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992, p.87).

In semi-structured interviews, the researcher can adjust the questions to participants' level of knowledge of the issue. Although all the respondents are asked about the same themes, the researcher may adapt the formulation of the probe questions, including the terminology, to fit the background and knowledge level of the participants (Patton, 2002). A researcher may also adjust the questions according to the language the participants use. This is one of the advantages of semi-structured interviews over structured interviews. The order in which the topics are discussed may also be varied depending on the way in which the interview develops. Additional questions may be required to explore the research question and objectives given the context or nature of events within an organisation. As the interviews are semi-structured, the researcher may pose emerging questions not listed in the interview guide to explore answers for

clarification or to elicit more detail with respect to an answer, but such questions will be guided by and strictly within the scope of the research objectives. The semi-structured interview is more a guided conversation than a structured enquiry (Yin, 2014).

In this study, the questions in the interview guide consisted of questions designed by the researcher. Interviews comprised 7 questions exploring different themes and concepts (all linked to the research question), written in simple language. Three of the questions varied depending on the background and expertise of the interviewee (see Appendix 4). The conversations were recorded using two digital recorders (one as back up). All participants were contacted in advance via email. In many cases, because of the researcher's deep immersion in the study site over a two-year period, there had already been contact between the researcher and interviewees and many were already aware and familiar with the study. Once participants agreed to be interviewed, they were provided with a background to the study through a participant information sheet and a consent form to participate (see Appendix 2 and 3). Each interview lasted between forty minutes and ninety minutes (65 minutes average) and all interviews were recorded. Each interview took place in a setting that was conducive, convenient and mutually agreed upon.

At the beginning of the interviews, participants were provided with background information on the research project. This was followed by a simple, open-ended question about their general activities related to their expert level of the research topic. This proved useful in establishing a degree of comfort with the participants. In addition to these open ended questions, directive questions, grand tour questions and prompts were used (Leech, 2002; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). Throughout the interview process, the researcher was conscious of the interview setting and the non-verbal communication of the participant. Observation is also a useful means of capturing how humans construct accounts of

experiences and the meaning they attribute to different aspects (Jorgensen, 1989). Each participant was informed of their right to stop the interview or to request that their data be removed from inclusion in the study at any stage. To respect anonymity, numerical representations were chosen by the researcher to maintain a degree of respect for the interviewee, which is in line with qualitative interpretive research (Kaiser, 2009).

5.6.2 Participant Observation

Kawulich (2005, p.1) defined observation as "*the systematic description of events, behaviours and artefacts in the social setting chosen for study*" and she noted that in recent years "*the field of education has seen an increase in the number of qualitative studies that include participant observation as a way to collect information*". DeWalt and DeWalt (2002, p.92) suggested that participant observation facilitates a "*holistic understanding of the phenomena under study that is as objective and accurate as possible".* In combination with other methods, participant observation may increase the credibility of a study as observations can provide a better understanding of the context and phenomenon under study. During the study period, TU Dublin began a HEI community engagement initiative to support innovation and creativity in disadvantaged communities in the Grangegorman area. The considerations in the design, delivery and development of this HEI community engagement initiative were considered closely aligned to the development of a HEI community engagement enterprising behaviour programme and a request was made for the researcher to participate in the initiative. Most importantly for this study the programme was focused on HEI community engagement with disadvantaged communities.

The Pre-Texts community engagement initiative was developed by Prof. Doris Sommer from Harvard University and has been introduced widely in America and Latin America. In introducing the programme in Ireland, TU Dublin aimed to work with local community groups and educators to address some of the stark socio-economic facts of disadvantage within the local community at Grangegorman including: higher than average levels of young school leavers; lower than average levels of engagement with further education; significant numbers of lone parents and a growing migrant population. Pre-Texts in Dublin was comprised of two parts: A-Train-the-Trainer program, followed by the formation of a community of creative educators who implemented Pre-Texts in various disadvantaged and under-represented communities. An overview of the researcher's observation schedule is outlined in Table 5.4.

Over a 15-month period the researcher was fully immersed in the Pre-Texts programme as a participant-observer. Training was led by Prof. Doris Sommer along with 23 teachers, trainers, youth workers, artists, educators and others working in learning environments with children, young people or adults in disadvantaged communities.

Table 5.4 – Participant Observation Schedule

Type	Duration	Date	Overview
Train the Trainer	3 days	May 29-31, 2018	HEI Community education training programme with 23 educators.
Community of Creative educators	4 months	Sept 19, 2018 Oct 9, 2018 Nov 6, 2018 Dec 3, 2018	Monthly meetings of creative educators to share experiences and discuss implementation in various community settings.
Community Implementation	3 months	Mar 8, 2019 April 30, 2019 May 14, 2019	Collaboration with social inclusion co-ordinator Worked with a group of 6 women in recovery from drug and alcohol addiction.

Training was followed by the establishment of a community of creative educators which supported Pre-Texts implementation in various disadvantaged communities. In the implementation phase, the researcher collaborated with a social inclusion co-ordinator at the Gateways project, Manor Street (Dublin) to introduce Pre-Texts to a group of young women in recovery from drug and alcohol addiction. With full permission from all participants, the researcher observed the initiative through written field notes and reflexive journaling for the purposes of the case study.

5.6.3 Documentation

To provide another basis of data triangulation, a variety of document types were collected from research participants. Atkinson and Coffey (1997, p.47) refer to documents as *"social facts", which are "produced, shared, and used in socially organised ways*". They are also defined as text and images that exist independent of a researcher's intervention (Bowen, 2009). Whilst arranging interviews, the researcher requested that the interviewee's provide any documentation that may be insightful for the study. This included policy documents including annual reports, strategic plans, and brochures. In addition, the researcher collected publicly available documentation in the form of websites and social media sites.

Adopting a case-study research strategy in this study facilitated the use of multiple data collection techniques to provide insight on the area of study. As can be observed from Table 5.5 (overleaf) the sources of data for this study included, participant observation, semi-structured interviews and document analysis to provide context. Context is deemed a key consideration in both entrepreneurial education and HEI

community engagement (Laing and Maddison, 2007, Maritz and Brown, 2013; Thomassen et al, 2019).

Table 5.5 – Case Study Data Sources and Analysis

Data Sources	Detail	Total	Data captured	Informed Findings
1. Participant Observation	Pre-Texts 3 Phases of Participant observation	28 Hours	Observation notes & Reflexive journaling	1. Informed theme sheet for interviews and researcher discussion in interviews. 2. Guided researcher on new learning theory for disadvantaged communities. 3. Embedded researcher within the case site and associated networking provided access to highly experienced and relevant practioners for interview
2. Interviews	15 expert interviews 4 knowledge areas (interview duration 40-90 mins, average 65 mins)	14.6 hours	15 interview transcripts	1. NVivo assisted thematic analysis -Case node created for each knowledge expert and interview commentary. 2. Annotations linked interview data to emerging themes. 3. Data extracts coded allowing patterns of meaning to generate themes 4. Several cycles of coding assisted by Nvivo tool enabled transparent analytical process
3. Document Analysis	Policy Documents, Legal acts, Annual reports, System Performance reviews, Strategic Plans	26 documents	Notes on document analysis & annotations	1. NVivo assisted content analysis leading to integration into relevant themes. 2.Provided context in support of findings within thematic analysis.

Gathering data in this way enabled real insight and experience to be gained from study participants to further understand this nascent research field. The use of multiple data collection techniques as opposed to a single data collection method such as semi-structured interviews was deemed critical for this study given the need to understand the phenomenon from the perspectives of those within the HEI, ecosystem and disadvantaged communities. Multiple data collection methods facilitate equity of voice and perspective, which is deemed particularly important in the study of underrepresented communities in social science research (Knight et al, 2009). Moreover, case study as a qualitatively orientated research design is well documented across the three fields of this research study (Yazan 2015; Harland, 2014; Blenker et al., 2014).

5.7 Data Analysis

Qualitative data is often characterised by richness and fullness, where meaning is principally derived from words and images, not numbers. Maykut and Morehouse (2002, p.18) suggested:

> *words are the way that most people come to understand their situations; we create our world with words; we explain ourselves with words; we defend and hide ourselves with words*

Thus, in qualitative data analysis and presentation "*the task of the researcher is to find patterns within those words and to present those patterns for others to inspect*. After much analysis of the topic and immersion in a qualitative analysis course (December, 2018), the data analysis method adopted by this study is based on the principles of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; 2013). Other analysis strategies such as interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) and also grounded theory were considered, but, neither approach was considered a good fit with the research strategy and case study approach of this study. Following the guidelines from Braun and Clarke, thematic analysis may be widely used across the epistemological and ontological spectrum and can be used to analyse most types of qualitative data including interviews, observations and qualitative policy data (Herzog et al., 2019). Moreover, several studies from a critical realist stance have utilised a thematic analysis approach (Braun et al., 2014; Clarke et al., 2018).

5.7.1 Thematic Analysis: Overview of Process

While qualitative research is not given to mathematical abstractions, it is nonetheless systematic in its approach to data collection and analysis. Framed by a focus-

of-inquiry, whether data is collected through interviews or questionnaires, open-ended questioning allows study participants to articulate their perspectives and experiences freely and spontaneously. In analysing data generated in this format, responses are not grouped according to pre-defined categories, rather salient categories of meaning and relationships between categories are derived from the data itself through a process of inductive reasoning known as coding. The thematic analysis approach offers the means whereby by the researcher may access and analyse these articulated perspectives so that they may be integrated in a model that seeks to describe and explain the phenomenon under study.

This method involves breaking down the data into discrete 'incidents' (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) or 'units of meaning' (Maykut and Morehouse, 2002) and coding them into categories. Categories arising from this method generally take two forms: those that are derived from the participants' customs and language, and those that the researcher identifies as significant to the project's focus-of-inquiry. The goal of the former "*is to reconstruct the categories used by participants to conceptualise their own experiences and world view",* the goal of the latter is to assist the researcher in developing theoretical insights through developing themes that illuminate the phenomena under study; thus *"the process stimulates thought that leads to both descriptive and explanatory categories*" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, pp 334-341). Categories undergo content and definition changes as units of meaning and incidents are compared and categorised, and as understandings of the properties of categories and the relationships between categories are developed and refined over the course of the analytical process. As Taylor and Bogdan (1984, p.126) summarise:

> *using this method, the researcher simultaneously codes and analyses data in order to develop concepts; the researcher refines these concepts, identifies their properties, explores their relationships to one another, and integrates them into a coherent explanatory model.*

An in-depth description of the data analysis steps taken in this research study are provided in Chapter Six.

5.8 Researcher Role

In a qualitative study the researcher plays a key role in the research process itself. The researcher is not observing phenomenon from a remove but tends to be actively involved in the research process. The data is examined by the researcher in a manner that requires her own interpretation of the results, based on the interplay between theoretical foregrounding prior to data generation, experience, understanding and certain coding techniques that she has developed to analyse and synthesise data. Throughout the methodology literature, it has been suggested that in a qualitative study a researcher's background, views and experiences need to be stated clearly and explicitly (Creswell, 2014). In this regard, the first-person style of writing is adopted for the next section of this chapter to provide an insight into the researcher's positionality.

5.8.1 Researcher Positionality

I was a curious child who loved school and learning. My sister, Jennifer and I were raised in a loving household by parents who highly valued education and made many sacrifices to provide us with opportunities. Our parents always nurtured our abilities and fostered our independence from a young age. My family home was and still

remains on Benburb Street in Dublin's North West Inner City. My paternal grandmother, Lily, lost her husband to leukaemia when my father was 6 months old. Through necessity, Lily became a shop keeper and kept the small business alive for 20 years. Benburb Street may have had high levels of socio-economic disadvantage, but there was always a strong community spirit on the street and in its surrounding environs. In recent years, Benburb Street has undergone vast regeneration. Yet, the strong community spirit of those indigenous to the area remains and was an integral part of my upbringing. My familial ties are strong, and I have never moved far from my family home which is still located on Benburb Street. I now live a ten-minute walk from my family home in the Grangegorman area where the new TU Dublin campus is under development.

I received my first chemistry set when I was eight years old, so it seemed a natural progression for me to study science at University. The highlight of my degree program was an Erasmus research internship at the University of Salamanca in Spain, where I spent 6 months soaking up the Spanish sun and wine, but most importantly watching molecules stop and start under controlled conditions. I was trained to form hypotheses and test for them in controlled experiments. My ontological viewpoint at this time was informed by the positivist scientific perspective. Despite my love of science, I never envisioned myself in a research laboratory for my career and on graduation began an M.Sc. in Science Communication. The program had an intake of both humanities and science students, which led to many heightened and interesting discussions and debates on contemporary science issues. Through these discussions, I became aware of the value of other philosophical perspectives outside the positivist paradigm. This broadened my research perspective, as I began to understand the qualitative insights that can be provided through social scientific research.

Upon graduation from the M.Sc. I worked as a technical trainer in industry before securing the role as Ireland's first "Education & Outreach Manager" at the National Centre for Sensor Research (NCSR), Dublin City University (DCU). It was 2001, the 'new' primary science curriculum had not yet been introduced into primary classrooms. Many teachers had no formal training in science and were not comfortable teaching the subject. However, there was a huge demand from students and teachers to learn more. One of our most successful community outreach projects was Eco Sensor-Web. This project involved deploying mini, sensor-based weather stations in glasshouses at the National Botanic Gardens, Dublin and creating a virtual tour of the gardens where children could log-on and observe what was happening in real-time. The website was loaded with engaging information and "hands-on" activities for students to participate both at home and in the class-room (http://www.ecosensorweb.dcu.ie). Despite many technical challenges, the project was highly successful. The success was due to the project team, each from a diverse background from both inside and outside the university, bringing a different perspective to the project and challenging the best mode for project delivery. This was my first experience of university community engagement and I was hungry for more.

Stemming from my work in the NCSR, I joined the Biomedical Diagnostics Institute at Dublin City University in 2005 as Education and Outreach Manager. My remit was to develop an innovative biomedical education program that involved interaction with multiple audiences including students across all levels of the education continuum (1^{st} -4^{th} level) and the general public. Over the next ten years, our program engaged with over 32,000 students from primary school children to adult learners. One of the most successful community engagement projects during this time was funded by the

European Commission's FUND project. We developed an adult community health program that was developed with the local community and attended by adults with low literacy levels and non-native English speakers in a flat complex in Ballymun. Through this initiative we were able to reach audiences with limited prior engagement with science. In 2010, for my pioneering work in university outreach with local communities, I won the inaugural DCU President's Award for Civic Engagement.

I have been teaching at Third Level (various courses) since 2001 and I have been developing and teaching entrepreneurial training programmes since 2010. In 2013, I was one of two staff members selected by the DCU President to participate in the inaugural Accelerating Campus Entrepreneurship (ACE) Enterprise Education training programme. This year long module provided me with a deep insight into good practice in entrepreneurial education and challenged my thinking on the potential for HEIs to bring their knowledge and expertise in entrepreneurial education outward to local communities. The culmination of both my personal and professional experience has led to the development of this Ph.D. research study.

From this short vignette capturing elements of my life story, it can be seen how my perspective and experiences have led me to be the person that I am. I was raised in an inner-city community, I have studied and worked within the HEI environment and I have professional experience in HEI community outreach and engaging with local communities. I am passionate about education and have observed first-hand the transformational effect that both education and HEI community engagement can provide.

The researcher acknowledges that her own background and beliefs have inevitably interacted with this research project. However, it has been highlighted that it is possible for researchers to avoid any potential bias by being introspective, deliberate and honest

with both herself and the audience (Machi and McEvoy, 2012). In this regard, a reflective journal was kept throughout the period of this study which recorded the researchers journey drawing upon theory, empirical insight and reflection. The researcher took a number of measures to minimise subjectivity and any potential research bias stemming from being a research instrument. For example when conducting interviews, care was taken not to let questions, wording, expressions, or reactions convey the researchers opinion. Kezar (2002) suggested that one way to avoid bias is to incorporate multiple viewpoints – multiple key expert perspectives were sought in this research study. Additional measures such as data triangulation, member checking and peer debriefing were also employed during the research process. Throughout the study, the researcher always questioned her assumptions, looked for alternative explanations and sought comments from peers. The trustworthiness strategy adopted to minimise any potential researcher bias is illustrated later in this chapter.

5.9 Research Ethics

In qualitative studies, ethical issues are concerned with personal disclosure, authenticity and credibility (Creswell, 2014). Shank (2005) described the spirt of the ethical researcher as being open, honest and careful, and as doing no harm. Generating an ethical framework supported the thoughtful conduct of the research and credibility of findings. In considering the selection of the case of study, approval was sought at senior management level to utilise TU Dublin as a site of study. This was approved and facilitated access to gather the rich data of the study. Ethical considerations across the study are highlighted below.

- **Interviews**

In overcoming any ethical issues through the interview process, this study anonymised the identity of the interviewees and ensured their willingness to participate by means of signed research consent forms and an opportunity to review transcribed interviews. Before commencing the interviews, each participant was sent an email that, in addition to a consent form, included an introduction to the researcher, background information on the research topic and project, a guarantee of confidentiality, a proposed time frame for the interview and an offer to respond to any additional questions that participants had. In relation to the present study, participants were assured that their identity would not be disclosed or shared without their consent. Data collected for this work included contact information, audio files of interviews and transcripts of interviews, contact summary forms and informed consent replies. These have been retained securely by the researcher for verification purposes and for use in any future study if and when needed

- **Participant Observation**

The researcher sought approval from the lead co-ordinator of the Pre-Texts project to participate and observe the initiative. Following this approval, the researcher also sought approval from the community of practitioners to participate and observe which was subsequently approved. Field relationships were developed in the course of the participant observation and the researcher ensured that the rights of the people involved in the research was valued and that mutual respect was maintained (Glesne, 2011). This study anonymised the identity of all participants of the Pre-Texts programme

- **Data Analysis and Findings**

In the data analysis and presentation of findings, the researcher avoided the use of biased language, ensured that findings were not altered to suit project aims, anticipated possible repercussions of publication and submitted details of the research design for scrutiny.

- **Ethical Approval**

The planning process involved in obtaining ethical approval for this study ensured a proactive approach to addressing ethical issues. The Research Ethics and Integrity committee at the Technological University Dublin endorsed the study with full ethics approval and permissions (see Appendix 1).

5.10 Ensuring Quality and Rigour

Quality in interpretivist research tends to be grounded in trustworthiness and authenticity, as espoused by Lincoln and Guba (1985) who argue that a single absolute account of social reality is infeasible. Therefore, reliability and validity, which assume that a single absolute account is possible, appear ill-suited to judging social reality. Criteria such as reliability, validity and generalisability are used by convention to gauge the mostly quantitative research that emanates from the positivist paradigm, with a significant focus on how results may be generalised to the wider population. An alternative to the concepts of reliability and validity in quantitative research is the concept of trustworthiness. As such, to fully appreciate quality through trustworthiness, Lincoln and Guba proceed to deconstruct it into four sub-constructs that parallel reliability and

validity (Bryman and Bell, 2015, pp. 401). These four sub-constructs are further discussed below:

Credibility: It is one element of quality which mirrors internal *validity* in realism. Internal validity is concerned with ensuring that a finding that incorporates a causal relationship between variables is sound. However, in a social world were multiple causal variables are possible, focus shifts to the credibility of the researcher's account. Thus, triangulation with multiple sources of data helps to ensure credibility.

Transferability: Given that contextual uniqueness of each case in most qualitative studies, transferability replaces external validity in quantitative research. As Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.316) commented "*whether or not findings hold in some other context, or even in the same context at some other time, is an empirical issue*". They further contended that the burden for generalisation rests not with the original investigator but on the person seeking to make an application elsewhere. Similarly, Stake and Trumbull (1982) refer to transferability as naturalistic generalisation, wherein similarities with the next context being studied determines the degree to which findings are generalisable. To help future researchers generalise to other contexts, 'thick' descriptions (Geertz, 1973) of the case and theoretical context under study assist in providing rich data for making judgments about the transferability of findings to inform other contexts.

Dependability: Analogous to *reliability* in quantitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) advance dependability as an 'auditing' approach to establishing trustworthiness.

It involves ensuring that complete records are kept at all phases of the research process from formulation, selection of participants, to reflective journaling, interview transcripts and more. This record of the research process allows peers to establish how well proper procedures were followed. Thus, the focus is on validation as a process as opposed to validity as policing of research (Leitch et al., 2010).

Table 5.6 - Research Study Trustworthiness Strategy

Dependability (Processes in the study reported in detail thereby enabling a future researcher to repeat the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results)	1. Clear and detailed research design & implementation 2. Operational detail of data gathering 3. Reflexive appraisal of project 4. Employment of overlapping methods
Confirmability (Steps taken to ensure data is that of informants not researcher preferences)	1.Trianglation – to reduce researcher bias 2. Reflexive commentary 3. Audit trail – Diagrammatic representation
Credibility (How congruent are the findings with reality?)	1.Adoption of appropriate research methods (case study) 2.Embedded within study site for 2+ years 3.Triangulation-Methods: Observation, interviews, document analysis 4.Wide range of informants – 360 perspectives 5.Site triangulation – Informants from several organisations – 'circling reality' 6. Informant honesty – option to refuse to participate 7.Frequent researcher/supervisor meetings 8. Research presented at 8 International conferences, 3 book chapters and 1 peer reviewed paper 9.Member checks offered within and after interviews 10. Reflective journal 11. Researcher background outlined 12. Thick rich description
Transferability (How results of study can be applied to other situations)	1.Full description of all contextual factors related to the inquiry. 2.Boundaries clearly outlined 3.Limitations of single study outlined in this regard in section 5.11 (context based)

Source: Adapted from Leitch et al.(2010) and Shenton (2004)

Confirmability: Finally, under trustworthiness, confirmability recognises that while objectivity is impossible in business research, the researcher's values do not tilt the conduct of the research and findings. Additionally, Lincoln and Guba (1985) proceed to unpack the authenticity construct into multiple sub-constructs such as fairness, educative,

catalytic and tactical authenticity, which address issues relating to the broader political impact of research.

A comprehensive trustworthiness strategy has been developed for this research study as guided by the work of Leitch et al., (2010) and Shenton (2004) (Table 5.5). The trustworthiness strategy as illustrated in Table 5.6 provides detailed information on varying aspect of the study research design. As evidenced from the table, quality was internalised throughout the entire research journey in several ways.

5.11 Limitations

Despite having carefully considered the research design of this study and the methodological approach, as with any research methodology there are several limitations which must be acknowledged. Despite the value that the case study approach brings to the study of entrepreneurship, it has often been criticised in the literature. As highlighted by Ogbor (2000) and others in the literature, entrepreneurship research has traditionally used positivist methods, which may have prevented the field from moving beyond its quantitative orientation and adoption of functionalist paradigms. This long-term adherence to positivism appears to drive the constant requirement for qualitative approaches to demonstrate that their research is credible (Henry and Foss, 2015). Whilst making the case for the use of qualitative approaches, including case study in entrepreneurship research, Brush (2007) acknowledged the difficulty in getting this work published and gaining acceptance within the entrepreneurship research community. This is echoed by Anderson and Starnawska (2008) when they noted that "*the gatekeepers of entrepreneurial research, the editors and reviewers of journals, all seem to favour a positivistic approach*". Thus, while this research has highlighted examples of the chosen

methodology within the literature to address the appropriateness of this research study, there is less published examples within the critical realist paradigm from which to draw.

A second limitation is related to the focus on a single case site. Flyvbjerg's (2006, p.242) well cited research provided a counter argument to the limitations of a single case study, arguing for the fact that a single case is grounded in its "*closeness to real-life situations, its proximity to the study of reality and its multiple wealth of detail*". However, he acknowledged that despite the single case approach "*holding up well*" to other research methods within the field, it continues to be disadvantaged in favour of large samples. Given the contextual focus of the single case study approach, it may also limit how the findings from this research can be directly correlated to a different HEI in a different area. Nonetheless, the primary focus of this study in utilising a single, in-depth, qualitative approach is naturalistic generalisation and producing exemplary knowledge which does not see findings as generalizable to a population, but rather to a theory of the phenomenon being studied that may have wide applicability (Stake and Trumbell, 1982; Collingridge and Gantt, 2008; Thomas, 2010).

A third limitation is the inherent subjectivity and potential bias of qualitative research, particularly with an interpretive approach. These issues can arise as a result of the researcher's physical proximity to the subject of investigation through interviews, which might affect participant behaviour as they are being watched (Rubin and Rubin, 2011). Further, the researcher's values, beliefs and assumptions may influence interpretation of data in qualitative research (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Therefore, researchers need to acknowledge these issues and establish their position as part of the research process rather than claiming total separation. This was addressed earlier in this chapter. To assist in overcoming these issues in this study, the researcher adhered to the

interview schedule, maintained a clear chain of evidence throughout data collection and analysis, and triangulated emergent findings using recorded interviews, participant observation notes and documentation.

5.12 Conclusion

Through the use of the research 'onion' approach developed by Saunders et al (2016), this chapter has shared the methodological journey of this study and described and justified the research approach and methodology employed (as summarised in Table 5.7). This research is best illustrated within the critical realism paradigm adopting a realist ontology and a qualitative interpretivist epistemology to gain deep insight on the phenomenon under study. Based on this decision, different potentially suitable methodologies were presented and compared against the aim of this study. These reflections led to the selection of a single case study as the suitable research strategy to answer the research question of '*How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the development of Enterprising behaviour in Disadvantaged communities*?".

This chapter also outlined the context and detailed background of the selected case study deemed most appropriate to answer the research question. The main data collection was through qualitative interviews which was conducted across a broad spectrum of expert level participants including academia, policy makers, teachers, community members and members of disadvantaged communities in order to elicit rich description and provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. Coupled with participant observation and document analysis, this enabled the findings of the study to be triangulated to confirm its trustworthiness.

Table 5.7 - Key Project Research Decisions.

Research Decision	Approach Chosen	Justification
Paradigm/Philosophy	Critical Realism (Bhaskar, 1979; Little; 1991;Sayer, 2010)	Facilitates exploration of contextual, institutional and societal consideration for this study.
Theory Development	Abductive (Easton,2010; Dubois and Gadde, 2002; 2014)	A recursive forward and backward approach between theory and empirical data to best address the research question.
Methodological Choice	Multi-method Qualitative (Saunders et al, 2016)	Qualitative research is based on a holistic approach which takes account of contexts within which human experiences occur and is thus concerned with learning from instances or cases.
Research Strategy	Single Case study (Yin, 2014)	A revelatory case study selected to understand the phenomenon under study
Time Horizon	Cross-sectional	
Data Collection	1.Semi-structured interviews (Creswell and Poth, 2018) 2.Participant Observation (DeWalt and Dewalt, 2002) 3.Document Analysis (Bowen, 2009)	Case study approach facilitates multiple collection techniques. Triangulation enabling real insight and experience to be gained from study participants.
Data Analysis	Thematic Analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006)	Supports the finding of patterns and recurrent themes in the dataset to address the research question.

Adopting a thematic analysis approach, data analysis was an iterative, recursive and dynamic process coincidental with data collection. Chapter Six examines the data analysis process and the key findings from the empirical work as they relate to the three main areas of the conceptual framework: (1) Higher Education Community Engagement; (2) Enterprising Behaviour; and (3) Disadvantaged communities. Chapter Seven draws the theoretical, methodological and practical conclusion to this research study.

Chapter 6. Findings and Discussion

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter Five, the theoretical underpinnings that guided the methodological decisions to frame the design of this research study were presented. The purpose of this chapter is to articulate the empirical findings from the qualitative case study of this research. This chapter presents a critical analysis and findings which answer the key research question: *How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the Learning of Enterprising Behaviour in Disadvantaged Communities?* The chapter begins with detailed insight into the analytical strategy adopted for this study – that of thematic analysis. The function of the thematic data analysis approach that is presented in this chapter is to organise and simplify the complexity of the data into meaningful and manageable codes, categories and themes. In doing so, it provides an audit trail on how the data was coded and analysed leading to the findings of this study.

Following the presentation of the analytical strategy, the research findings from the participant observation study of the Pre-Texts initiative are first discussed. This is followed by the case study findings which are discussed in relation to the different themes and sub-themes which emerged from the data set. Excerpts and quotes from interview transcripts, participant observation and policy documents are used throughout the chapter to relate the data back to the research question and the overall examination of case study findings of how HEIs might support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. Building upon the abductive nature of this study, the findings are compared to existing literature as presented in the integrated theoretical framework at the end of Chapter Four. This interwoven discussion of empirical findings and theoretical literature culminates in the presentation of an evidence-based framework

for HEIs in supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities.

6.2 Phases and Steps taken in the Analytical Process

The data analysis approach adopted in this study was based on the principles of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is a systematic approach to the analysis of qualitative data that involves identifying themes or patterns of meaning; coding and classifying data (usually textual), according to themes; and interpreting the resulting thematic findings (Lapadat, 2010). Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. Thematic analysis is a "*flexible and useful tool to provide potentially a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data*" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.4). Thematic analysis may be widely used across the epistemological and ontological spectrum (Braun and Clarke, 2013) and thus is considered consistent with the critical realist philosophy of this study (Braun et al., 2014; Clarke et al., 2018). As an analytical approach thematic analysis is not particular to any one research method and can be utilised to analyse most types of data sources including interview transcripts, field notes and observations and policy documents (Herzog et al, 2019). The nature and flexibility of thematic analysis makes it a suitable data analytical strategy in case study research design (Lapadat, 2010; Cedervall and Åberg, 2010; Manago, 2013; Nowell et al., 2017; Peel, 2020).

The analytical strategy developed for this study involved discrete phases of analyses which were conducted across several stages as defined by Braun and Clarke (2006, 2013). These phases included (1) familiarisation (engaging with data); (2) coding; (3) searching for themes; (4) reviewing themes; (5) defining and naming themes; (6)

writing up. These phases involved several cycles of coding, managing codes, categorisation and subsequent data reduction through consolidating codes into a more abstract theoretical framework (themes) and one which uses writing itself as a tool to prompt deeper thinking of the data (Bazeley, 2009) leading to the findings presented in this chapter. Although the thematic process presented here is a linear, six-phase process, the process was an iterative and reflective process that developed over time and involved a constant moving back and forth between phrases. In line with the majority of qualitative researchers, in this study data collection and data analysis occurred simultaneously to facilitate the collection of meaningful data to effectively address the research question (Braun and Clarke, 2013; Charmaz, 2006; Creswell, 2007; Miles et al., 2014).

The researcher's role in knowledge production is at the heart of the thematic analysis approach proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) and adopted in this study. In this study thematic analysis was implemented with theoretical knowingness and transparency (Braun, Clarke & Weate, 2017). This aligns with the abductive approach to theory development which was employed in this study (Van Maanen et al., 2007; Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Guided by Braun and Clarke's extensive literature on the topic, in this study, themes are analytic outputs developed through and from the creative labour of the researcher (Braun and Clarke, 2019). They reflect considerable analytic 'work,' and are actively created by the researcher at the intersection of data, analytic process and subjectivity. Themes are creative and interpretive stories about the data, produced at the intersection of the researcher's theoretical assumptions, their analytic resources and skill, and the data themselves (Braun and Clarke, 2019). Braun and Clarke increasingly refer to terms like 'developing' (Braun, Clarke, and Weate, 2017) 'constructing' (Braun et al., 2018) or 'generating' themes to capture this process.

The concept of data saturation may be used in qualitative research as a criterion for discontinuing data collection and/or analysis (Saunders et al, 2017). Saunders et al., (2017, p.1) argued that "*saturation should be operationalised in such a way that is consistent with the research question, theoretical position and the analytical framework".* In adopting the principles of thematic analysis from Braun and Clarke (2006) this study follows the guidelines of Braun and Clarke (2019) in relation to data saturation and thematic analysis. As such Braun and Clarke (2019) argued that data saturation may be difficult to align with thematic analysis:

> *Coding quality in thematic analysis stems from depth of engagement with the data, and situated, reflexive interpretation. And this process-based, and organic, evolving orientation to coding makes saturation (especially conceptualised as information redundancy) difficult to align.*

Braun and Clarke's approach to thematic analysis (2006, 2019) is founded on the assumption that meaning is not inherent or self-evident in data, that meaning resides at the intersection of the data and the researcher's contextual and theoretically embedded interpretative practices – in short, that meaning requires interpretation. In this reflexive organic process, analysis can never be complete (Low 2019). Coding and deeper analysis do not inevitably reach a fixed end point – instead, the researcher makes a situated, interpretative judgement about when to stop coding and move to theme generation, and when to stop theme generation and mapping thematic relationships to finalise the written report. They can also move back and forth recursively between coding and theme development. So, if reflexive thematic analysis researchers use the popular concept of data saturation, the notion of 'no new' makes little sense. Yet, saturation may be explored or imagined from a different perspective. Akin to Low's (2019) re-conceptualisation of

theoretical saturation in grounded theory as pragmatic saturation, what might constitute 'saturation' for thematic analysis researchers is an interpretative judgement related to the purpose and goals of the analysis. The rigorous, six-stage data collection and thematic analysis process is presented in Table 6.2 and described and explained below:

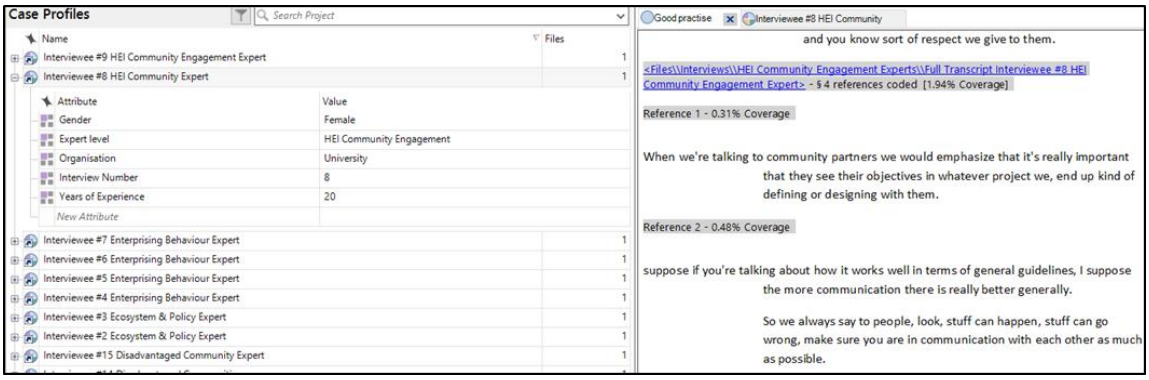
Phase 1: Familiarisation.

This stage involved the researcher becoming familiar with the empirical data gathered. This involved reading through interview transcripts several times. This allowed the researcher to become immersed in the overall discourse, slowly becoming aware of recurrent themes and ideas. During this phase, a project database was compiled in NVivo (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 12, 2019) by importing the demographic details of all the participants (to track the contribution to source), the transcripts of all the fifteen interviews and related policy documents. NVivo is a type of Qualitative Data Analysis Software (QADAS) which was utilised in this study to assist in the analysis process. It must be stressed that in using qualitative data analysis software, the researcher does not capitulate the hermeneutic task to the logic of the computer; rather the computer is used as a tool for efficiency and not as a tool which in and of itself conducts analysis and draws conclusions. As Fielding and Lee (1998, p.167) explain, qualitative researchers "*want tools which support analysis, but leave the analyst firmly in charge*". Importantly, such software also serves as a tool for transparency. Arguably, the production of an audit trail is the most important criteria on which the trustworthiness and plausibility of a study can be established. Qualitative analysis software's logging of data movements and coding patterns, and mapping of conceptual categories and thought progression, render all stages of the analytical process traceable and transparent, facilitating the researcher in producing

a more detailed and comprehensive audit trail (codebook) than manual mapping of this complicated process can allow.

Cases in NVivo represent unit's of analysis and observation. The focus of analysis in this study is on a Higher Education Institution with an emphasis on community engagement. Gaining a deeper understanding of the topic required insight from multiple perspectives, and a case node was created in NVivo for each knowledge expert containing their entire interview commentary, linked in turn to their demographic and profile information, as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 - NVivo Case Node Exemplar



Source NVivo Study Database File.

Relevant documents were also linked to each participant case. NVivo had the potential to link these sources, thus facilitating quick retrieval and contextualisation of cases.

Phase 2: Coding (Generating initial codes)

This phase involved broad participant-driven initial coding of sources to deconstruct the data from its original chronology into initial non-hierarchical general codes. Coding is used to categorise data with similar meaning. Coding involves labelling each unit of data within a data item (transcript or document) with a code that symbolises or summarises that extract's meaning (Saunders et al, 2016). The coding cycle emphasises

the practice of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and/ or transforming the data set in the full corpus of information (Miles et al, 2014). The coding logic in this study moved from the particular to the general, in a manner consistent with Saldana (2015) (see Appendix 6). According to Saldana (2015), interpretivist coding is a hierarchical system which typically begins with raw data (interview) which is organised into codes. Codes are then organised into categories. From categories, themes and concepts are developed at a more general and abstract level. The list of tentative codes expanded as the data were reviewed and rereviewed (Creswell, 2014). This stage of analysis was recurring, and it gradually involved the entire data corpus (Braun and Clarke, 2013). In NVivo, codes are also referred to as 'nodes' providing storage areas for references to coded text (Bazeley, 2007). In this phase, data was lifted from its original textual context (e.g. interviews transcripts) and placed into free nodes which were largely descriptive and stand-alone categories (units of meaning) with no evident relationships or connections to each other. Table 6.1 provides an exemplar data extract with a code applied.

Table 6.1 - Exemplar Data Extract and Code

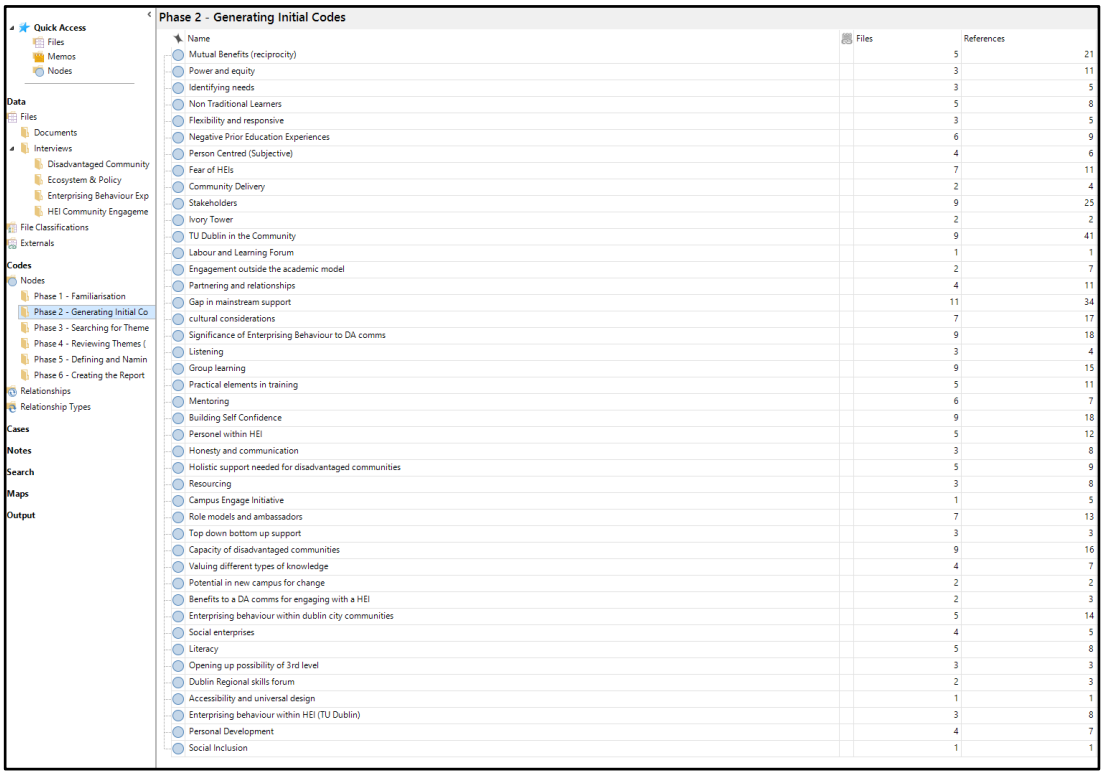
Data Extract	Coded for
"And the issue when it comes to community engagement and the university is, is really that there are kind of mutually supportive objectives being achieved". (HEI CE Expert #10)	• Mutual Benefits (Reciprocity)

Source: Study interviewee files

Each free node was defined and detailed with a descriptive 'rule of inclusion' which outlined the basis for including or (excluding) text segments (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). From the identified extract, each of the code labels and descriptions progressively generated a code list (codebook). This phase involved preliminary line-by-

line coding of all data sources and resulted in a substantial number of free nodes as illustrated in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 - Initial Coding Process (Phase 2)



Source NVivo Study Database File.

Annotation writing was also utilised at this point. Annotations play an important role in qualitative data analysis as everything is time and context bound (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Annotations were used to capture field notes and observations, coding assumptions, and researcher's thoughts and ideas. These annotations were the researcher's own comments, reminders and/or reflections on the text which captured the researcher's thinking at a moment in time and served as a tool to remind the researcher of observations. An annotation extract is illustrated in the Appendix (see Appendix 5).

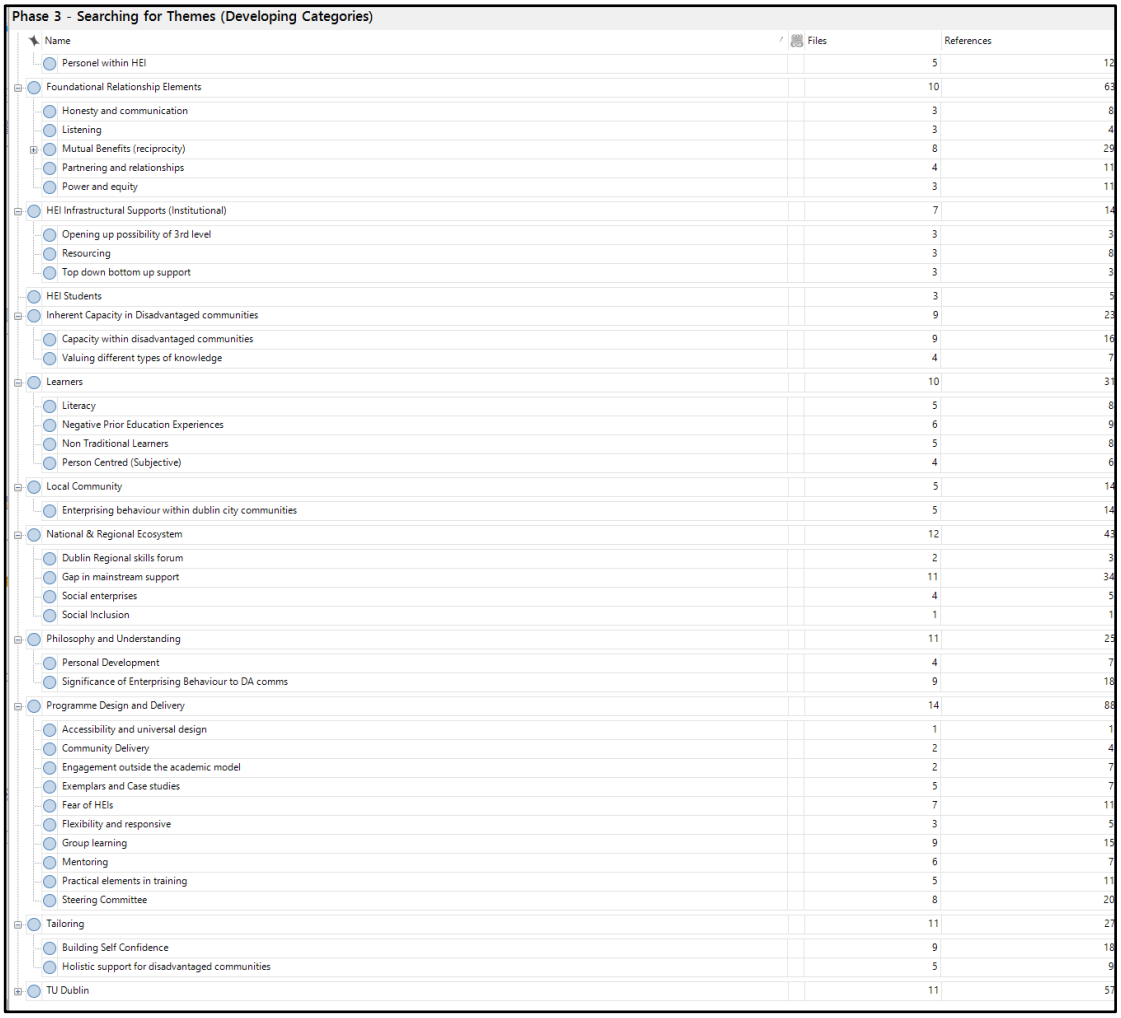
Phase 3: Searching for themes (Developing Categories)

This phase involved re-ordering codes identified and coded in phase 2 into categories of codes by grouping related codes under these categories and organising them into a framework that made sense to further the analysis of this data set guided by the research question. This phase also included distilling, re-naming and merging of categories to ensure that their definitions accurately reflected coded content. Categories could be described as a halfway house between organising initial codes into logical groups and generating themes. A code category represented " *a collection of similar data sorted into the same place, enabling the researcher to identify and describe the characteristics of the category*" (Morse, 2008 p. 727). This process is illustrated in Figure 6.3. Gradually in this phase, emerging ideas were being refined and the flat structured free nodes (codes) were developed into more complex hierarchical structural categories (tree nodes).

Phase 4: Reviewing Themes

This phase involved breaking down the now restructured categories into sub-categories to offer more in-depth understanding of the highly qualitative aspects under scrutiny and to consider different views and perspectives coded to these categories and to offer clearer insights into the meanings embedded therein. This phase involved the development of initial themes and sub-themes. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), *"a theme is a coherent and meaningful pattern in the data relevant to the research question*". A theme is a broad category incorporating several codes (nodes) that appear to be related to one another (Saunders et al, 2016). Thematic maps were utilised at this stage to assist in the visualisation and organisation of themes and sub-themes as illustrated in Figure 6.9.

Figure 6.3 - Searching for Themes (Phase 3)



Phase 3 - Searching for Themes (Developing Categories)

Name	Files	References
Personel within HEI	5	12
Foundational Relationship Elements	10	63
Honesty and communication	3	8
Listening	3	4
Mutual Benefits (reciprocity)	8	29
Partnering and relationships	4	11
Power and equity	3	11
HEI Infrastructural Supports (Institutional)	7	14
Opening up possibility of 3rd level	3	3
Resourcing	3	8
Top down bottom up support	3	3
HEI Students	3	5
Inherent Capacity in Disadvantaged communities	9	23
Capacity within disadvantaged communities	9	16
Valuing different types of knowledge	4	7
Learners	10	31
Literacy	5	8
Negative Prior Education Experiences	6	9
Non Traditional Learners	5	8
Person Centred (Subjective)	4	6
Local Community	5	14
Enterprising behaviour within dublin city communities	5	14
National & Regional Ecosystem	12	43
Dublin Regional skills forum	2	3
Gap in mainstream support	11	34
Social enterprises	4	5
Social Inclusion	1	1
Philosophy and Understanding	11	25
Personal Development	4	7
Significance of Enterprising Behaviour to DA comms	9	18
Programme Design and Delivery	14	88
Accessibility and universal design	1	1
Community Delivery	2	4
Engagement outside the academic model	2	7
Exemplars and Case studies	5	7
Fear of HEIs	7	11
Flexibility and responsive	3	5
Group learning	9	15
Mentoring	6	7
Practical elements in training	5	11
Steering Committee	8	20
Tailoring	11	27
Building Self Confidence	9	18
Holistic support for disadvantaged communities	5	9
TU Dublin	11	57

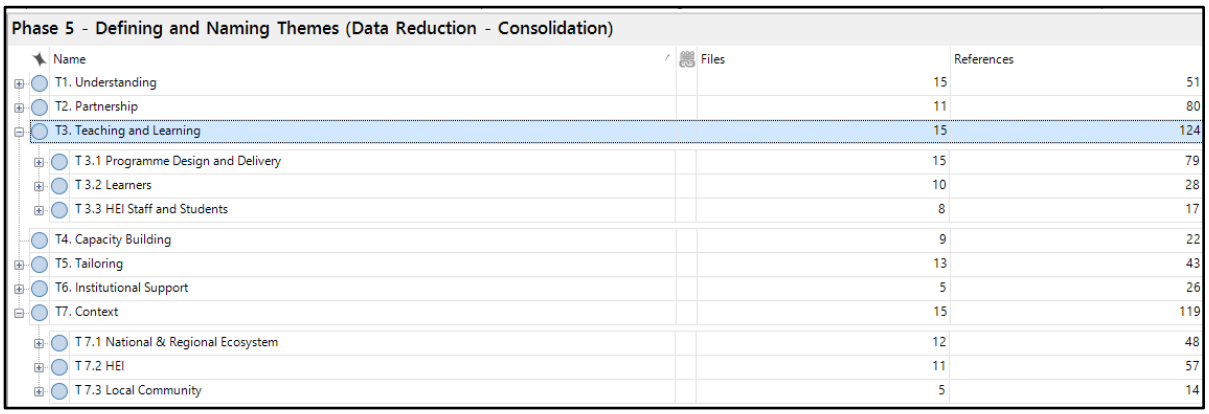
Source NVivo Study Database File.

Phase 5: Refining themes

This phase involved consolidating themes developed in earlier stages to ensure that themes and theme names clearly, comprehensively and concisely captured what was meaningful about the data, related to the main research question. This process involved interrogation of data and forces the consideration of elements beyond the theme itself, drawing on relationships across and between themes and cross tabulation with demographics, observations and literature. This phase resulted in evidence-based findings as each finding had to be validated by being rooted in the data itself and relied on the creation of reports from the data to substantiate findings. In this phase, primary sources

were considered in the context of relationships with the literature, as well as identifying gaps. Finalisation of themes was a lengthy process where themes and sub-themes were generated to display an 'overall story' and answer the overarching research question. This led to the writing up of the final analysis section and development of an evidence-based framework to address the overarching research question. The themes constructed in Phase 5 as captured through the NVivo process are illustrated in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4 - Defining and Naming Themes (Phase 5)



Phase 5 - Defining and Naming Themes (Data Reduction - Consolidation)

Name	Files	References
T1. Understanding	15	51
T2. Partnership	11	80
T3. Teaching and Learning	15	124
T 3.1 Programme Design and Delivery	15	79
T 3.2 Learners	10	28
T 3.3 HEI Staff and Students	8	17
T4. Capacity Building	9	22
T5. Tailoring	13	43
T6. Institutional Support	5	26
T7. Context	15	119
T 7.1 National & Regional Ecosystem	12	48
T 7.2 HEI	11	57
T 7.3 Local Community	5	14

Source NVivo Study Database File.

Phase 6: Creating the report

This stage involved the development of a full analytical narrative presenting final themes that answer the main research question. This process can be viewed as the final phase of analysis, which provides sufficient evidence of the themes within the data. These findings (as presented in the subsequent section) are then interwoven with the literature to provide deeper insight into the analysis. The entire data analysis process is captured in Table 6.2. Table 6.2 links the stages and processes outlined above and conducted in NVivo to the practical guidelines as set out by Braun and Clarke (2006). The six-step approach to conducting thematic analysis is displayed in the first column while the second

column displays the corresponding application in NVivo. The third column shows the strategic elements of coding as the researcher moved from initial participant-led descriptive coding, to secondary coding which was more interpretive in nature and as such both participant and researcher led, to the final abstraction to themes which is entirely researcher led. The fourth column demonstrates the iterative nature of the tasks as the coding, analysis and write-up proceeds toward conclusion. As illustrated in Table 6.2 the rigorous data analysis utilised throughout this study was a recursive iterative process beginning with the primary data and moving through 6 different phases of analysis in the generation of themes to assist in answering the main research question of this study.

Table 6.2 - Analytical Hierarchy to Data Analysis

Analytical Process (Braun & Clarke, 2006;2013)	Practical Application in NVivo	Strategic Objective	Iterative process throughout analysis
1. **Familiarisation (engaging with data**	Phase 1 -Transcribing data reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas. Import data into the NVivo data management tool	**Data Management** *(Open and hierarchal coding through NVIVO)* 	Assigning data to refined concepts to portray meaning  Refining and distilling more abstract concepts 
2. **Coding**	Phase 2 – Initial Coding – Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collecting data relevant to each code.		
3. **Searching for themes (Developing Categories)**	Phase 3 – Categorisation of Codes – Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme		
4. **Reviewing themes:**	Phase 4 – Coding on – Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set, generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis	**Descriptive Accounts** *(Reordering, 'coding on' and annotating through NVIVO)* 	Assigning data to themes/concepts to portray meaning  Assigning meaning 
5. **Refining themes:**	Phase 5 – Data Reduction – On-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story [storylines] the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme		
6. **Writing up**	Phase 6 –The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis	**Explanatory Accounts** *(Extrapolating deeper meaning, drafting summary statements and analytical memos through NVIVO)*	Generating themes and concepts

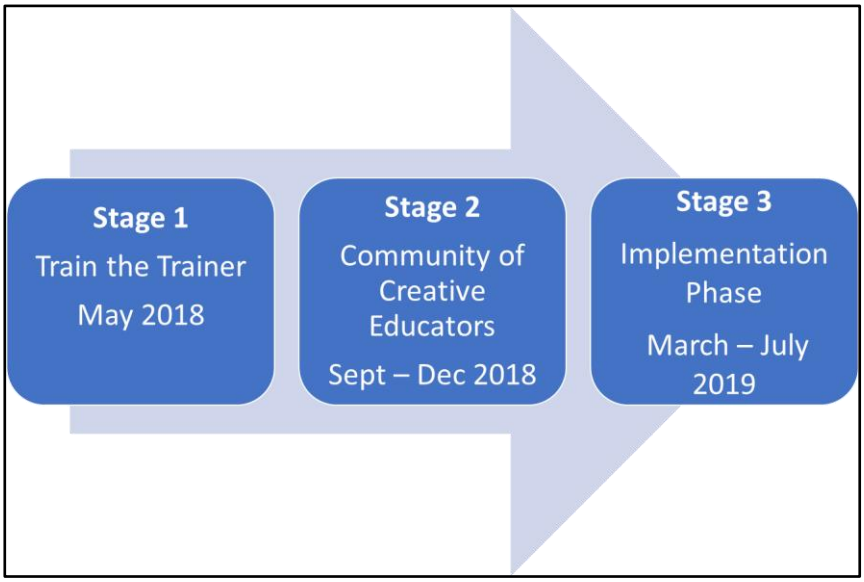
Source: Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006)

6.3 Participant Observation Analysis

The researcher's participation in the Pre-Text initiative at TU Dublin, Grangegorman from May 2018 to July 2019 was a foundation to the case study Participating in the HEI community engagement initiative provided the researcher with insight on community engagement initiatives and learning in disadvantaged communities. The participant observation also enabled the researcher to gain new connections for the case study and several members of the community of creative educators agreed to share their insight through interview. The participant observation study was utilised to triangulate the findings of the main study and provided the researcher with first-hand experiential knowledge. The observation study was exploratory in nature and occurred prior to the main case study. In this study the findings from the participant observation are presented as a series of analytical reflections.

Schon (1984: 1987) argued that valuable tacit knowledge can be gained through immersion in observational education practice. Analytic reflections may come in a variety of forms, such as: (1) brief reflective writing, known as "analytic asides"; (2) more elaborate reflections on specific events or issues, known as "commentaries"; or (3) sustained analytic "in-process memos," which are often written after completing the day's fieldnotes (Emerson et al., 2011). This study uses a series of observations and reflections as guided by Rolfe et al (2001). Informed by McNiff (2016), the participant observation is presented in the first-person style of writing 'I'. It is presented in the form of a narrative of the three phases of observation followed by a reflection which links the insights from the narrative back to the research question and next steps. The phases of the participant observation are highlighted in Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5 - Three Phases of the Participant Observation Study



The proceeding section begins with a background to the Pre-Texts initiative. The subsequent analytical reflections shared represent a summary of the memos and reflections written after completion of each day's field notes. All names have been changed for anonymity and faces blurred for visual anonymity.

Background

In 2018/2019, the Grangegorman Labour and Learning Forum (GLLF) collaborated with Grangegorman Public Art, TU Dublin, the North-West Inner-City Network, Complex Productions and Common Ground to deliver the Harvard-based Pre-Texts initiative in the Dublin 7 area. Pre-Texts is a simple and flexible teaching/learning tool developed by Professor Doris Sommer, Director of the Cultural Agents NGO at Harvard University which focuses on literacy, innovation and citizenship. This was the first time Pre-Texts had been delivered in Europe and participants included academics, primary school teachers, artists, prison educators, youth workers and community activists.

Stage 1: Train the Trainer – Analytical Reflection

- *Twenty-three people from diverse backgrounds came together on the first morning of the Pre-Texts workshop, I knew no one else and many others didn't either. However, by the end of day three, we had bonded as a group. Even though we were a heterogenous group with many different experiences and backgrounds the workshops incrementally built our confidence to share. Publishing 'online' (clothesline) and Tangents (connecting an external text to the core text) were a core element of Pre-Texts. Many were reluctant to share their experiences during the first morning, but this changed as the days progressed. Playful exercises inspired by Augusto Boal's Games for Actors and Non-Actors were used to relax inhibitions and generate a safe space of trust and cooperation.*

- *As the workshop progressed, we 'played' with Pre-Texts, working with the challenging text 'Panopticism' from the French philosopher Foucault (Discipline and Punish, 1975). This text choice was deemed appropriate given the history of incarceration associated with the Grangegorman site. What seemed difficult at first, became easier as the workshop progressed, and we gained confidence in our individual and group creativity and innovation. Our rich Irish literary heritage was central to a distinctly Irish experience of Pre-Texts. This highlighted for me the contextual element of community engagement initiatives.*

- *A number of times, the classroom moved outdoors to accommodate the rare beautiful Dublin weather. This opened up the classroom and highlighted for me that Pre-Texts was not constrained in a typical classroom environment. It was an enjoyable and flexible way of learning*

- *"What Did we Do?" another key Pre-Texts moment that concludes every activity, requires participants to share reflections on that process. This had a democratising effect where everyone was encouraged to contribute and listen. This initially challenged our group, early contributions seemed tokenistic, however, as the workshop progressed these moments became deeper and more reflective encapsulating the participants' transformative learning journey.*

Figure 6.6 - Stage 1: Freirean Circle during Pre-Texts Workshop

- *Several Pre-Text activities took place in a Freirean circle (Figure 6.6). For the first time during Pre-Texts, I was introduced to Paulo Freire and his education theories, particularly with disadvantaged communities. Freirean theory promotes a co-operative learning environment where the teacher engages in learning with the student, and the student engages with other students in addition to learning with the teacher. It acknowledges the subjective experiences and abilities within*

individuals. This was insightful for my research study and I actioned to further explore the work of Paulo Freire.

- *Toward the end of the workshop we began to discuss how we could implement our learning in our respective communities. I wondered how could I implement Pre-Texts, where and with whom? I was not currently working with a school or community group. However, I reflected on the potential significant insight for my own study if I could use the Pre-Text technique to better understand learning in disadvantaged communities. I decided to remain open to all possibilities.*
- *As the workshop closed, Prof. Sommer shared with me some of the Pre-Texts evaluation research from the Americas, linking learner's personal development and increasing confidence to participation in Pre-Texts. This work had resonance for my own study.*
- *My immersion in Pre-Texts coincided with my meeting of Prof. Candida Brush (Babson University) during my participation at the Babson College Entrepreneurship Research Conference (BCERC) Confreat at Dublin City University. Prof. Brush shared insights with me on self-efficacy as an outcome of entrepreneurial education and I actioned to explore the link between self-efficacy and community entrepreneurial education which was of interest to my study.*

Stage 2: Community of Creative Educators – Analytical Reflection

- *The next phase of Pre-Texts training was for all trained in Pre-Texts to implement their learning within their respective communities. To assist in the process, a community of creative educators was formed which met bi-monthly*

over a 4-month period (Figure 6.7). During this phase, my colleagues introduced Pre-Texts to 'at risk' youth, socio-economically disadvantaged communities, ethnic minorities, adults with prior negative education experience and prisoners. As the weeks progressed, I realised the overlap between the disadvantaged communities within my study and that of Pre-Texts communities. Subsequent points summarise my key observations and follow up action from this period.

Figure 6.7 - Stage 2: The Community of Practice

- *During one community meeting, Johnny shared "it's important for communities that I take the approach I am going to be educated, they are going to educate me, we are going to educate each other". He shared how in his community, Pre-Texts facilitated a collaborative and egalitarian learning environment. This observation prompted my reading of Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed*

(1972), where I began to consider the educators facilitation role in community engagement initiatives and the relevance to my study.

- *As the community of educators meetings drew to a close, I realised that each creative educator had a unique response to the Pre-Text method and implementation in their own communities (Pre-Text in Ireland report, 2019). I realised that each unique response was based upon the educator's knowledge and understanding of their audience and what was suitable for each. The design and nature of the Pre-Text enabled this to happen. This prompted a reflection for my own study on the importance of knowing and understanding one's audience in the design of community initiatives.*
- *Over the course of the community meetings I observed the necessity of flexibility in community education. Those in prison education shared the regular challenges they experience in initiating an education programme and those in HEI community engagement noted the differences between the academic schedule and the community schedule, they were not in sync and a programme that should have taken 4 weeks took 8 to complete.*

Stage 3: Implementation – Analytical Reflection

- *Through the community of creative educators, I collaborated with Gillian (a social inclusion co-ordinator) and together we introduced Pre-Texts to a group of women in the Gateways Project, Manor Street. The women were challenged with addiction issues. I was nervous before meeting the group and not sure what*

to expect. Walking through the door of Gateways, everyone was warm and friendly. It was evident that this was a safe place for the community.

- *In the weeks leading up to implementation, Gillian and I had several planning meetings. Gillian shared many insights on working with disadvantaged communities. We settled on a book called Stoneybatter – Dublin's Urban Village which had several historical vignettes from within the local community. I shared with Gillian my interest in having an enterprise element to the text and she selected a piece on a shop keeper called Maisie Daly. We originally choose a different piece, but Gillian noted that this piece criticised single mothers and it may not be appropriate for this group. I reflected here on understanding the audience and was struck by the knowledge that Gillian brought to the initiative.*

Figure 6.8 - Stage 3: Implementing Pre-Texts

- *Throughout the program, the women shared knowledge and experiences that were insightful, and they commented on their enjoyment of the practical nature of the course (Figure 6.8). After the first session, Gillian commented that she was amazed that we were able to hold the groups concentration and attention, as those suffering from addiction issues often have short attention spans.*

- *The informal and egalitarian nature of Pre-Texts enabled many to talk about issues beyond the planned content, which surprised me (including homelessness) and many used the opportunity to gain guidance and advice from Gillian on personal issues as the course progressed. This made me consider the facilitator role in community engagement initiatives. Gillian had a deep understanding of these women and how to engage them.*

- *The session was supposed to last for four weeks and be finished by April. However, due to a number of scheduling issues we didn't finish the course until July. This was both frustrating and insightful at the same time. I realised that often in the community setting there is significant difference to the academic scheduling and flexibility is required.*

- *Towards the end of my Pre-Texts experience, I was asked to represent the community of practice and write a reflective piece for the project report. The community of practice shared their personal experiences of Pre-Texts and I gained further insight on community engagement with disadvantaged communities. Subsequently, Prof. Sommer asked me to present the Pre-Text experience in Ireland as an exemplar of collaboration, engagement and impact in context at the 2019 International meeting of the Consortium of Humanities*

Centres Institutes (CHCI) in June 2019. This provided an opportunity to broaden my network internationally.

The researcher's participation in the Pre-Text community engagement initiative served as a foundational element to the case study and informed the study in several ways. Subsequent to the researcher's immersion in Pre-Texts, three members of the creative community of educators agreed to be interviewed for the main case study (a stakeholder, a disadvantaged community representative and a disadvantaged community educator). These became knowledge experts for the main study and through these 3 members, an additional 4 study participants were interviewed for the main case study. In total 7 of the 15 main study participants were interviewed resulting from the Pre-Text initiative. Additionally, the researcher's reflections and observations informed the theme sheet for interviews and the knowledge gained during the participant observation informed interview discussions. Finally, the experience facilitated the researcher to gain first-hand insight on considerations for learning in disadvantaged communities .

6.4 Case Study Findings and Discussion

Through in-depth interviews it was possible to gain significant insight into what constituent experts considered to be key elements in the development of tailored HEI community engagement initiatives supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. The key themes that were constructed through study analysis are illustrated in Figure 6.9. Through data analysis, seven meaningful themes were conceptualised as key constructs in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. These themes related to: (1) Understanding; (2) Partnership; (3) Teaching and Learning: (4) Capacity Building; (5) Tailoring; (6) Institutional Support; and (7) Context.

Figure 6.9 - Study Thematic Mind Map

In the subsequent section, the case study findings will be presented under each of the key themes that were constructed through the analytical process.

A significant amount of qualitative data was gathered in the process of this research study to address the key research question. As qualitative data is non numerical in nature, visualisation was used throughout the analysis phase to provide clarity during analysis and help to communicate information clearly and efficiently. Representing data visually is useful during analysis for identifying connections and patterns which would otherwise be difficult to discern. Aggregated data on the makeup and content of each theme is presented in the subsequent sections of the analysis. In line with the abductive nature of this study, Van Maanen et al. (2007) describe this as "*the principle of opposites"* whereby qualitative data may be counted and classified to support theory development. By way of thick description (Denzin, 2001) and consistent with the qualitative case study research design, a broad range of perspectives are shared in this analysis, providing the reader with a comprehensive insight on how HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives may be achieved. The discussion is enhanced by comparison with the literature on HEI Community engagement (such as Holland, 2001; Sandmann and Kliewer, 2012), Entrepreneurial Education (Enterprising Behaviour) (such as Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Blenker et al., 2012) and Disadvantaged Communities(such as Cooney and Licciardi, 2019; Berglund and Johansson, 2007) which were integrated to form the conceptual framework of this study (*cf* Chapter 4). At the end of this chapter, the interwoven discussion of findings from the primary data and in relation to the literature culminates in the presentation of an evidence-based framework which aids the reader to gain an in-depth understanding of the research phenomenon.

Theme 1. Understanding (T1)

According to Fayolle and Gailly (2008), entrepreneurial education programmes should be guided by a clear conception and understanding of entrepreneurship. The understanding theme encompasses participants' perspectives on enterprising behaviour and the relevance of supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. At an ontological level, this provides insight on the goals and objectives of a HEI community initiative supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. During each interview, study participants were asked the question "*what does enterprising behaviour mean to you?".* Participants used words to characterise and describe enterprising behaviour such as creativity, positivity, confidence, passion, determination, spark, looking for gaps, solutions and uncertainty. The variety of responses to participants' understanding of enterprising behaviour is highlighted in the NVIVO word cloud in Figure 6.10.

Figure 6.10- Participants Perspectives of Enterprising Behaviour

Source NVivo Study Database File.

Words in this figure are displayed in order of their hierarchy. The larger the font size, the more a word was mentioned by participants. Broadly participants across all four knowledge areas identified enterprising behaviour as looking for gaps and identifying problems and creatively looking for 'ways around things' or solutions.

Study participants related enterprising behaviour to a variety of contexts, however, the predominant focus was on individuals, communities and social enterprise, with less discussion regarding an economic or business context. For example, EB expert #7 defined enterprising behaviour when she said: "*I suppose I would see enterprising behaviour in its broad sense. So, it's not just about business. I think it's about looking for gaps, thinking differently, different perspectives. It's those sorts of things".* DA expert #15 defined enterprising behaviour in terms of individual behaviour, when she said: *"I think enterprising behaviour is any individual who is creative, who comes up with solutions to any sort of obstacles or problems that they come across. And it could just be on an everyday basis level – it could be within their own life or their own homes. It could be within their football, sports, it could be anything. Enterprising people are always looking for ways around things".*

Findings from this study indicated the relevance of supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged and marginalised communities. As highlighted by DA expert #14: "*to talk about this as entrepreneurship, you are frightening people, the starting point needs to be welcoming the way you are providing a solution to a problem, endorsing that your way of thinking is good, giving you the space to reflect and discuss that is safe and secure…It may in the longer term encourage them to see that business is not for others but for them as well, but this would be a precursor to that…but no one has done that for them".* This vignette from DA expert #14 captures the sentiment

shared by other study participants when they noted that introducing entrepreneurship to disadvantaged communities may have less relevance than the broader concept of enterprising behaviour.

Several participants shared that anticipated outcomes for disadvantage communities participating in an enterprising behaviour initiative could involve personal development. EB expert #4 suggested: "*this would enable somebody to become a more rounded individual for whatever their next pursuit might be"* or as EB expert #6 noted: "*providing someone with skills that opens their eyes, maybe it's putting a value on something that they may not have had before".* Beyond the individual level, participants shared the potential value of supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in a community context. DA expert #15 shared: "*I think encouraging enterprising behaviour is hugely relevant in a community like ours* [socio economically disadvantaged] - *you would actually not be going in with solutions. You're going to support people to actually move themselves to where they want to be – that could have a radical transformative effect in any given community…long term, you can change thinking, because when you see it being done by people you would not recognise".*

Figure 6.11 - Summary of Findings –Theme 1. Understanding (T1)

- Enterprising behaviour has application in a broad variety of contexts
- Supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour has relevance and value for disadvantaged communities at an individual and community level
- Expressing enterprising behaviour may be a precursor to entrepreneurship in a business or economic context
- Personal development is an anticipated outcome from participation in enterprising behaviour programmes

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

The entrepreneurial education frameworks of Fayolle and Gailly (2008) and Maritz and Brown (2013) (*cf* section 4.5) identify that ontology or understanding of entrepreneurship is a key construct in the development of entrepreneurial education endeavours. Gibb (2002a) and Blenker et al.'s (2012) theory of enterprising behaviour as a broader interpretation of entrepreneurship has relevance to any member of society and is inclusive in nature. Yet to date most studies on the learning of enterprising behaviour are focused within higher education. Moving outside the higher education setting into the community, findings from this study confirm the suitability and the relevance of the broader concept of enterprising behaviour to disadvantaged communities. Study findings corroborated with Blenker (2008) that enterprising behaviour may be understood as a pre-requisite to entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) or entrepreneurship. This perspective was deemed particularly appropriate in disadvantaged communities that may be '*frightened'* by the concept of entrepreneurship. As explored in later themes, other challenges such as prior negative education experience, illiteracy and lack of self-confidence may present challenges for disadvantaged communities in their participation in entrepreneurship. As HEI CE expert #8 shared: "*I think if people have the opportunity to build skills that kind of build confidence, which is the biggest thing you probably lack and build a sense of self sufficiency and a sense of capacity and agency, I think that's really important. And then obviously if you can bring in money, then that's even better. But I actually think all those other things are much more important. And then building on those you can, jump off somewhere else".*

Shaheen (2011; 2016) advocated that all stakeholders in inclusive entrepreneurial education initiatives should have a clear understanding of programme goals, vision and value. Findings from this study indicated that HEI community engagement endeavours

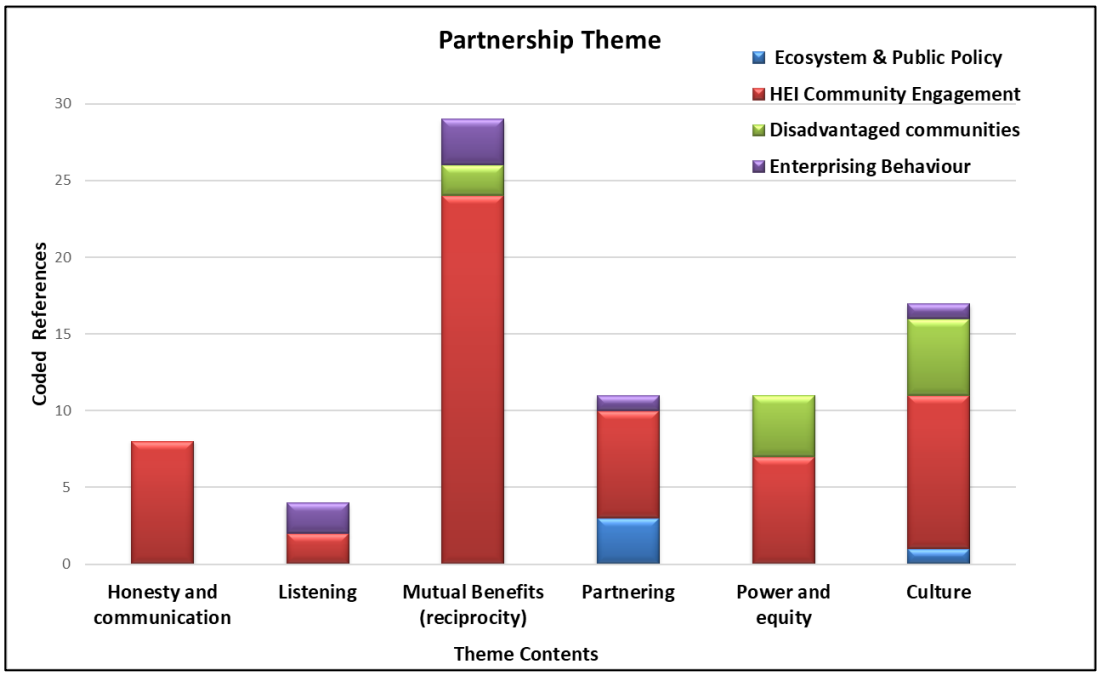
which support the learning of enterprising behaviour, fostering entrepreneurial attitudes and skills through personal development and growth have relevance for disadvantaged communities. Such initiatives may serve as a starting point by encouraging the ideas and creative solutions within disadvantaged communities which may in the longer term encourage entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow).

Theme 2. Partnership (T2)

At its essence the partnership theme encompassed the elements for consideration in the relationship between a HEI and a disadvantaged community through the process of community engagement. As HEI CE expert #11 noted: "*one of the biggest challenges for a HEI working with community groups is that you have to really let go of the assumptions, the egos, the power, the desire to take control and start to really sit down and form a partnership and that is tough"*. Interview participants discussed what they considered or perceived to be promising or good practice in the formation, establishment and continuation of a partnership approach between a HEI and disadvantaged community. Challenges and tensions within a HEI and community partnership were also shared. Figure 6.12 illustrates a breakdown of the elements within the partnership theme including honesty and communication, listening, reciprocity, partnering, power and equity and culture. The highest contribution to this theme came from the HEI community engagement experts. However, there was also contribution from other constituent experts, notably disadvantaged communities.

As one of the most discussed elements within the partnership theme, mutual benefit and reciprocity between a HEI and a disadvantaged community was considered to be the backbone in the development of HEI community engagement initiatives.

Figure 6.12 - Analysis of Partnership Theme



Source: NVivo Study Database File exported to Excel.

From the perspective of the HEI it was considered important that a community engagement initiative meets with the objectives of the HEI. As HEI CE expert #10 noted: *"it is difficult for the university to maintain or sustain an initiative or relationship that doesn't actually contribute to its own kind of strategic objectives".* It was also considered important that community needs and objectives were met through a community engagement initiative. As HEI CE expert #8 noted: *"when we engage with community partners, we emphasise that it is really important that they see their objectives being met in what we design with them".* As such an initiative which meets the mutual objectives of both the HEI and community enables a reciprocal partnership between the HEI and community. As noted by HEI CE expert #10: *"in terms of the university and any type of community engagement, it is important that there are mutually supported objectives being achieved".*

Mutual reciprocity is premised on equity within the relationship between a HEI and community. This may be difficult to achieve and often power differences within the relationship needs to be a considered. Commenting on this DA expert #15 said: *"power in the relationship needs to be considered and it should be equal, if you are looking at a disadvantaged community, then you have to meet them where they're at and with what they need as support, as opposed to what the university thinks the supports should be".* From the HEI perspective, HEI CE expert #11 noted: *"power relationships are very important between a HEI and disadvantaged community".* HEI CE expert #8 suggested that: "*with power differences, we often want to have a level playing field, but you can't. I think the best you can do is name them and articulate them in the hope that people get a better understanding of each other".*

In fostering equity in the relationship between a HEI and disadvantaged community, adopting a community deficit model was not considered good practice HEI CE expert #11 noted: "*you cannot empower a community with a kind of charity model, it is by itself very disempowering*" and HEI CE expert #8 concurred: "*a community deficit model is inappropriate*". This requires HEIs as suggested by HEI CE expert #8 to "*recognise different types of learning and knowledge and value them equally"* (further discussed in Theme 4 Capacity Building). This may present a challenge for a HEI or university as acknowledged by HEI CE expert #11: "*the challenge for a university is to know what you don't know and move outside the traditional space, recognising the knowledge within communities and helping them understand what they need*".

Cultural considerations in the partnership between a HEI and disadvantaged community were discussed by a number of study participants across the constituent experts. It was acknowledged that there are differences in norms and cultures between

HEIs and communities, and amongst communities. DA expert #12 acknowledged that appreciating cultural difference was important but admitted that: "*culture is intangible, it is hard to express or solidify, to address that we would say that in our community we have a different way of doing things"*. DA expert #15 advocated the need for HEIs to understand a community, for example when it comes to scheduling: *"there is no point starting a programme that includes single parents at 8.30am in the morning, parents may need drop children to childcare at this time".*

It was suggested that cultural differences and understanding between a HEI and community in a partnership can often lead to tensions. DA expert #15 shared her experience: "*when we engage with the university, things can be weighed down by the legal department and everything has to go through a very slow process. It is not flexible and responsive".* Responding to this, HEI CE expert #10 suggested that: *"sometimes communities are not aware of the constraints that a HEI is under for example in terms of recruitment, procurement or data protection".* In addressing some of these tensions, HEI CE expert #8 spoke of the need for intercultural understanding on both sides for HEI staff or students involved in community engagement initiatives and also the community. She noted: "*if both groups have an appreciation of how things are being done differently and it is acknowledged, then this may help in the relationship"*.

It was acknowledged that developing a partnership and relationship building takes time, as HEI CE expert #11 highlighted that: "*working in a consensual way and through a partnership approaches takes time".* In developing community engagement initiatives Ecosystem expert #2 noted:" *there is a lot to be said for that iterative process, where you start somewhere, humble beginnings and partnerships can form from that".* Stakeholder meetings involving the HEI, community and other relevant stakeholders (further

discussed in Theme 3 Teaching and Learning) were identified as helpful in clarifying the goals and objectives for all partners , HEI CE expert #8 said: *"what really works well in the initial planning meeting and subsequent meetings involving all stakeholders where objectives and goals are planned and discussed".* The mutual benefits of the partnership approach may lead to long-term outputs as noted by HEI CE expert #11 "*once the relationship is established and there's trust in it and you've achieved something together, then people tend to be much more open about wanting to put other things into other directions".*

Figure 6.13 - Summary of Findings –Theme 2. Partnership (T2)

- Community engagement initiatives may be developed and sustained through a partnership approach between a HEI and a disadvantaged community.
- Sustained partnerships are premised on mutual reciprocity whereby the objectives of the HEI and the community are both met.
- Foundational elements of a partnership between the HEI and community include clear communication, acknowledgment of differences, and the recognition (by a HEI) of different types of knowledge and learning.
- Intercultural considerations are required on both sides of the partnership.
- Building equitable partnerships takes time, but this may lead to longer term outcomes.

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

In Chapter Two, it was identified that much of the community engagement literature is biased towards the HEI side of the engagement agenda from the perspective of institutions, faculty and administrators (Sandy and Holland, 2006; Weerts and Sandmann, 2010). By incorporating perspectives from HEI community engagement experts from within and outside the HEI and participants and representatives of disadvantaged communities, the findings from this study reveal insights on HEI

community engagement beyond the perspective of the HEI. Moreover, the study of HEI community engagement with socially excluded and disadvantaged communities is less explored (Benneworth, 2013). Given the definition of HEI community engagement adopted for this study (*cf* Section 2.4), the findings from this study specifically focus on the engagement of HEIs with disadvantaged communities and extend theoretical knowledge in this regard.

The Holland HEI Community engagement framework (2001) (*cf* Section 4.5) identified that a mutually beneficial, sustained partnership between a HEI and a community is a foundational element of any HEI community engagement initiative. The findings from this study indicated the importance of mutual benefit in the partnership between a HEI and disadvantaged community. According to Allahwala et al (2013), maintaining reciprocity when defining the objective of a community engagement initiative is crucial to sustaining a HEI community partnership. This study adds depth and further insight to how 'meaningful interactions' (Benneworth, 2013) between a HEI and community can be maintained and sustained. An 'authentic partnership' (Fitzgerald et al. 2016) includes disadvantaged communities in the development of initiatives and endeavours which ensures that the needs of the communities are met, while also appreciating the valid knowledge that resides within communities. Findings from this study indicated that good practice in the development of a mutually beneficial partnership between a HEI and community include equity, clear communication, listening, honesty and developing an understanding between partners.

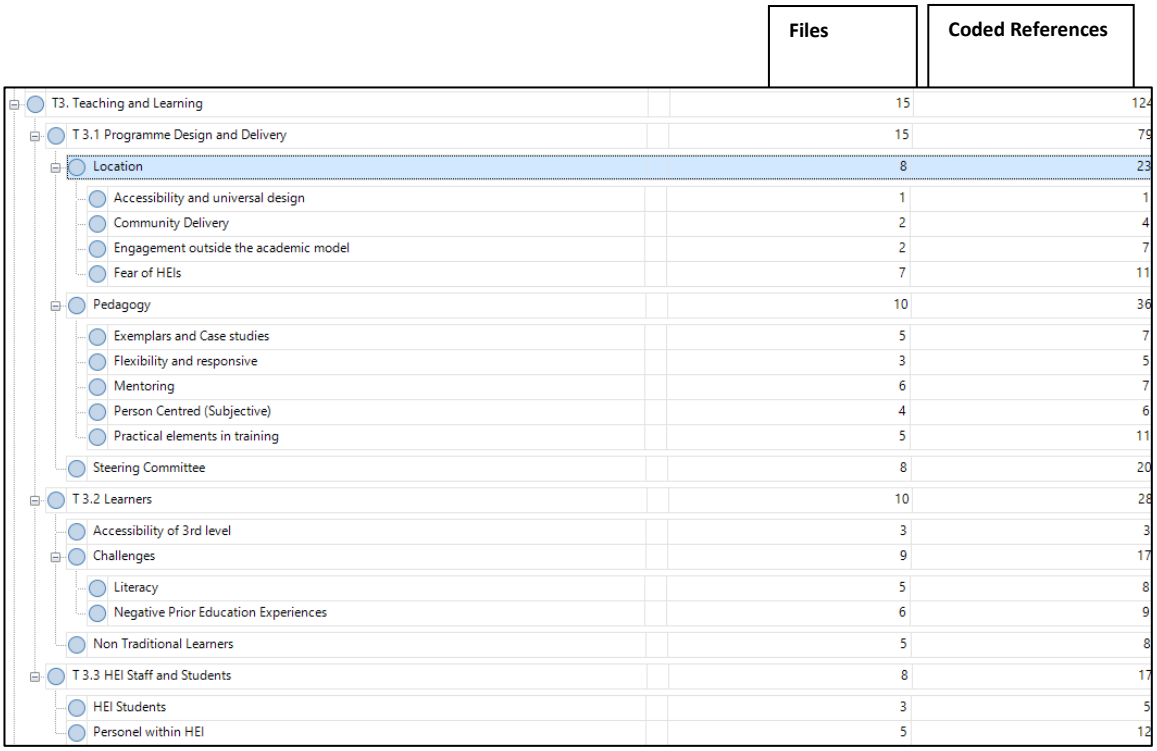
Communities by their nature have a shared set of values, norms, meaning and identity (Etzioni, 1996) which will differ from the norms and culture within HEIs (Hazelkorn, 2016b). Cultural differences between a HEI and community may lead to

challenges and tensions in HEI community engagement (Dempsey, 2010; Gelmon et al., 2013). Findings from this study indicated that challenges and tensions in HEI community engagement may be addressed through intercultural communication, respect and understanding within the partnership. A mutually beneficial partnership approach may lead to long-term outcomes and impact, although, findings from this study indicated that this may take time. How partnerships are built is the key to successful community engagement between universities and community partners (Soska and Butterfield, 2013). This study identified that communication, reciprocity, intercultural understanding, honesty and realism are all key to successful projects.

Theme 3. Teaching and Learning (T3)

The teaching and learning theme was the largest theme constructed from the dataset involving contribution from every study participant across all four constituent expert areas. The development of this theme is presented as an exemplar of the rigorous data analysis process within this study from the development of codes, categories and sub-themes to the final overarching theme in the Appendix (see Appendix 6). This theme reflects what participants perceived as important education-related elements in the development of a HEI community engagement initiative supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. This theme is comprised of three sub-themes: (1) Programme Design and Delivery, (2) Learners; and (3) HEI staff and students (Figure 6.14). In-depth insight into this theme is provided through discussion of each of the sub-thematic areas below.

Figure 6.14 - Analysis of Teaching & Learning Theme



	Files	Coded References
T3. Teaching and Learning	15	124
T 3.1 Programme Design and Delivery	15	79
Location	8	23
Accessibility and universal design	1	1
Community Delivery	2	4
Engagement outside the academic model	2	7
Fear of HEIs	7	11
Pedagogy	10	36
Exemplars and Case studies	5	7
Flexibility and responsive	3	5
Mentoring	6	7
Person Centred (Subjective)	4	6
Practical elements in training	5	11
Steering Committee	8	20
T 3.2 Learners	10	28
Accessibility of 3rd level	3	3
Challenges	9	17
Literacy	5	8
Negative Prior Education Experiences	6	9
Non Traditional Learners	5	8
T 3.3 HEI Staff and Students	8	17
HEI Students	3	5
Personel within HEI	5	12

Source NVivo Study Database File.

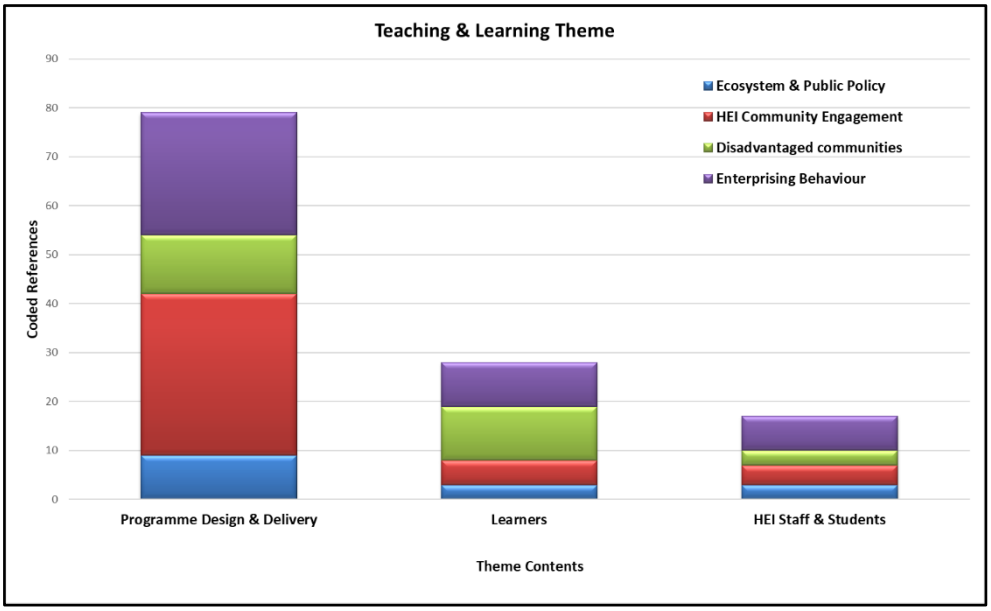
A visual and aggregated display of the elements of this theme is presented in Figure 6.15 which supports the analysis. As observed from Figure 6.15 study participants provided much insight on the specific considerations around the design and delivery of community enterprising behaviour initiatives. It is noteworthy that there is an even distribution across all constituent experts through each of the three sub-thematic areas that constitute the teaching and learning theme.

T 3.1 Programme Design and Delivery

Many participants shared their perspectives on the design and development of HEI community engagement initiatives with an emphasis on the inclusion of a steering committee, location and pedagogy. Involving the community and relevant stakeholders in the design and development of community engagement initiatives supporting the

learning of enterprising behaviour was considered crucial as DA expert #15 suggested: *"I would advise setting up a small advisory group, not just of academics and educators, but including the learner, the participants and other community stakeholders*". Other study participants shared their experiences of involving a number of stakeholders in the design of community enterprise initiatives, as EB expert #6 shared: "*we set up a steering committee with representatives from marginalised groups and other stakeholders. We all came together in a room and it made us look at things in a different way than before and that was challenging"*. EB expert #7 who was based within the HEI also suggested including a steering committee when she said: *"I think it will be important that it wouldn't be something that is just developed by academics, you would need input from representatives of disadvantaged communities, may be that is some sort of steering committee?*". The inclusion of a steering committee to provide guidance and insight to HEIs on the needs of learners and communities was considered important by study participants.

Figure 6.15 - Analysis within Teaching and Learning Theme



Source: NVivo Study Database File exported to Excel.

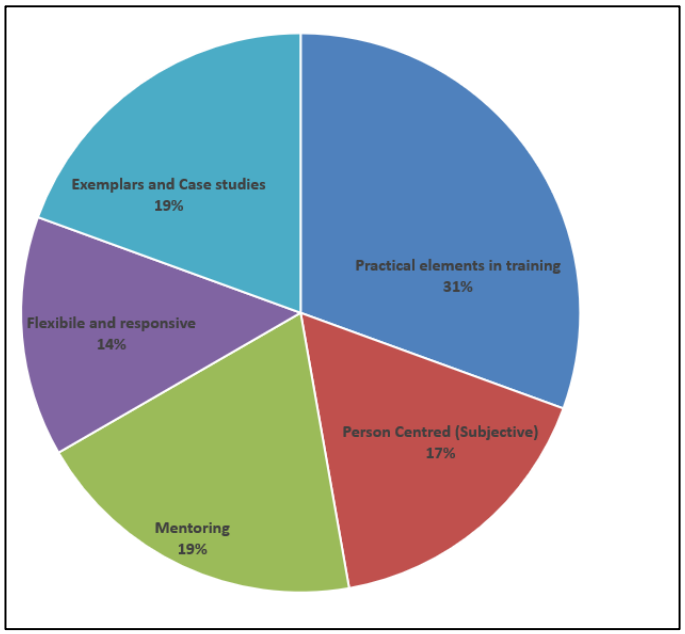
Several study participants shared their perspectives on suitable training locations for HEI community engagement initiatives with many acknowledging that disadvantaged communities may be intimidated by a university campus as HEI CE expert #8 noted *"psychologically for them* [disadvantaged community] *to walk onto campus is too big a leap – they will be intimidated".* In further enhancing the reciprocity in the partnership between a HEI and community, it was suggested that *"taking the institution out to the community"* (HEI CE expert #11) should be reciprocated by "*communities coming in, which helps to demystify the university and in itself break down barriers"* (HEI CE expert #9). As such a co-location delivery approach was considered appropriate.

Pedagogical considerations were discussed widely by participants in this study. The pedagogical considerations discussed are highlighted in Figure 6.16. In consideration of disadvantaged communities, practical elements in the provision were perceived as important, as EB expert #6 suggested: "*the practical stuff is where the real learning is; people need to walk away with something, they need to feel empowered".* She further explained *"you need to tip the balance between the academic and the practical side. After every single session, people need more than just an absorption of knowledge, let them walk away with something that is really practical".* Given the challenges that disadvantaged communities may experience (discussed in subsequent section), DA expert #13 argued for a '*person-centred'* pedagogical approach.

In developing community-based training, participants shared that HEIs need a flexible and responsive learning approach which may differ from provision inside the institution and academic models. This may be challenging for HEIs, commenting on this HEI CE expert #11 said *"if a HEI, for example can only develop a programme within the academic year, that is cumbersome and not responsive. HEIs need to recognise that*

communities may be on a completely different time continuum and now that's tricky. That can be tricky".

Figure 6.16 - Participant Contribution to Pedagogy Sub-theme



Source: NVivo Study Database File exported to Excel.

Including exemplars and case-studies from within disadvantaged communities was also considered good practice. Commenting on this, EB expert #4 said: *"You would need to include examples of people that have been marginalised from disadvantaged communities as real-life examples of success stories, how these particular people have overcome their difficulties and been enterprising*". Other participants shared the perspective that mentoring may be an element of provision as EB expert #6 shared: "*I think, mentoring is crucial. It's that sense of understanding that everyone needs now, everyone needs advice and perspective, and even to be able to talk about personal and professional issues which may be important for disadvantaged communities".*

T 3.2 Learners

As illustrated in Figure 6.15, most insight in the learner sub-theme was provided by constitute experts from disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour. This provided real-lived insight on how disadvantaged communities learn which provides a novel contribution to literature. Participants shared that learners in disadvantaged communities may be considered *'non-traditional learners'* (EB expert #7), who may experience *"insecurities around being in an education environment, as their first chance at education may have failed."* (DA expert #13). Participants shared the challenges that non-traditional learners may experience. Learners from disadvantaged communities may have prior negative education experiences and experience a lack of self-confidence. From HEI CE expert #11's perspective "*people who left school early, probably a long time ago and have few or no qualifications, will have little confidence in their ability to learn".* As such according to EB expert #7, from a HEI perspective: *"content would need to be flexible and adapted. You are not talking about people perhaps who have done a leaving cert or have experience of writing, that we assume our students have had".* Findings from this study, indicated that literacy issues may also be challenging for disadvantaged communities. As noted by DA expert #13: "*You must remember that people still have literacy issues – many men in our group did not know how to read books".*

Overcoming some of the challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities may be addressed in the design and development of programmes as reflected in the previous discussion. Flexibility was considered important, as EB expert #7 noted: "*the traditional methods of teaching aren't necessarily going to suit for these sorts of groups of people. We need to take different approaches, deal with things differently. And again, that means that, you know, you can't have standardized modules".* As an additional

potential outcome, several participants shared that participation by disadvantaged communities in an enterprising behaviour initiatives may "*encourage people to look at doing further education as well"* (Ecosystem Expert #1*)* and *"actually consider the university as an option for them" (*EB Expert #4). Findings from this study in relation to learners in disadvantaged communities is further explored in Theme 4 on Capacity building.

T 3.3 HEI Staff and students

In this study, perspectives on the involvement of academic staff in community engagement initiatives were shared by participants from within the HEI and also the community. EB expert #7 shared her perspective on the type of academic staff that may become successfully involved in community engagement initiatives. She noted: "*Its dynamic, there is no point someone engaging in this type of activity that is not interested in social issues, because that is what this is about. It's not just that I am interested in teaching enterprise, it is something different".* Advocating the need for academic staff to have a community based ethos or understanding of a community, HEI CE expert #11 said: *"they need to have that community experience, that enables them to 'really get' what is needed, click in with the right people and be able to move things forward".* From the community perspective, it was also considered important that academic staff would understand community, as DA expert #15 noted: "*this is people styled work and you could actually run something like this with five doctorates and get it wrong. Or you could run something like that with like a degree and do it better. …Basically, if you don't have the personality, if you don't have the interest, if you don't have the understanding, and if you're not buying into the idea that actually you're doing things with people and not for*

people, it's not going to work". HEI staff's involvement in community engagement may be enabled or inhibited by institutional infrastructures which is further discussed in Theme 6 Institutional Support. DA expert #12 also shared from his perspective that academic staff with a: '*personal connection with community, which was established over time'* led to successful community engagement outcomes.

The findings from this study indicated the potential opportunity for HEI students to be involved in HEI community initiatives which support the learning of enterprising behaviour. Participants shared several perspectives on this topic. Some participants linked the role of HEI access initiatives with HEI civic engagement. Ecosystem expert #3 suggested: "*I think there is potential within the HEI to work with the access service, to work with access students, perhaps as a link to these communities as well".* HEI CE expert #9 agreed when he said: "*there is the natural overlap between community engagement, access and representation - what better person to be a representative for engagement as someone who has availed of access routes".* Other participants shared that a co-created initiative between the HEI and the community could include community learners and HEI students in the learning process. This is further discussed in Theme 5 Tailoring.

Figure 6.17 - Summary of Findings – Theme 3. Teaching & Learning (T3)

- HEI community engagement initiatives supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour require different considerations than entrepreneurial education programmes within a HEI.
- Disadvantaged communities may be considered non-traditional learners and flexibility in approaches is required.
- Establishing a steering committee was considered good practice including the HEI, community members and other relevant stakeholders.
- HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives require active, subjective and

person-centred pedagogies.

- Mutual benefits may be derived from co-location in delivery between a HEI campus and community
- HEI academic staff involved in community engagement need an understanding of community and disposition that is open to several learning styles.
- Involving both HEI students and community learners in an initiative may be a unique offering that HEIs can facilitate

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

The entrepreneurial education frameworks of Fayolle and Gailly (2008) and Maritz and Brown (2013) (*cf* section 4.5) identify teaching and learning considerations as a key construct in the development of entrepreneurial education endeavours. Subsequent research and academic literature which further develop these frameworks predominantly focuses on their utility in a higher education context (e.g. Nabi et al, 2017). Findings from this study adapt the constructs from Fayolle and Gailly (2008) and Maritz and Brown (2013) in the community education setting for disadvantaged communities.

Blenker et al. (2012) identified that enterprising behaviour may be fostered through building upon the *apriori* knowledge, skills and experiences that individuals possess. Findings from this study indicated that this pedagogical approach has relevance for disadvantaged communities where active, subjective and person-centred approaches were deemed necessary. Shaheen (2011; 2016) recommended the inclusion of key stakeholders in the development of inclusive entrepreneurial education. This study endorses the inclusion of a steering committee and highlighted the importance of including representatives from disadvantaged communities.

The academic literature highlighted that for some disadvantaged communities a HEI campus can be physically intimidating and excluding (Robinson and Hudson, 2013). Participants in this study shared the fear that disadvantaged communities may have of a

HEI campus and emphasised that initiatives should be co-located between the community and a HEI. Incorporating this element within the teaching and learning construct highlights the integrated nature of this study. Much of the academic literature on entrepreneurial education is focused within the higher education setting where location of programme delivery is not required as a consideration. This finding is better understood through an integration of the community engagement and entrepreneurial education literature.

The Holland framework (2001) identifies genuine faculty involvement as a foundational element of HEI community engagement. According to Rubens et al. (2017), universities need to recognise that third mission activities are not ideal for all academic staff. Institutions should identify individuals that not only have the required skill set, but also have the disposition, orientation and perspective to be externally focussed. Quillinan et al. (2018) further highlighted the need for appropriate academic staff with connections to community and a teaching style that allowed for collaborative and shared learning. Findings from this case study are in synergistic positioning with the literature in this regard, both from the academic and community perspective. Academic staff involved in successful community engagement initiatives may be driven by a social justice agenda with an ability to connect and be open to learning with and from communities.

The Holland framework (2001) prioritises opportunities for high-quality engagement experiences for students as a foundational element for HEI community engagement. According to Kingma (2014) "*the core value-generation for any university is to provide a quality education for students*". Kingma (2014) guided against well intentioned inclusive entrepreneurial education programmes that help community entrepreneurship but do not involve HEI students. Findings from this case study, also

supported the inclusion of HEI students in HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives, with several study participants identifying the benefits to the community, the HEI, and students in co-learning opportunities, which is discussed further in Theme 5 Tailoring.

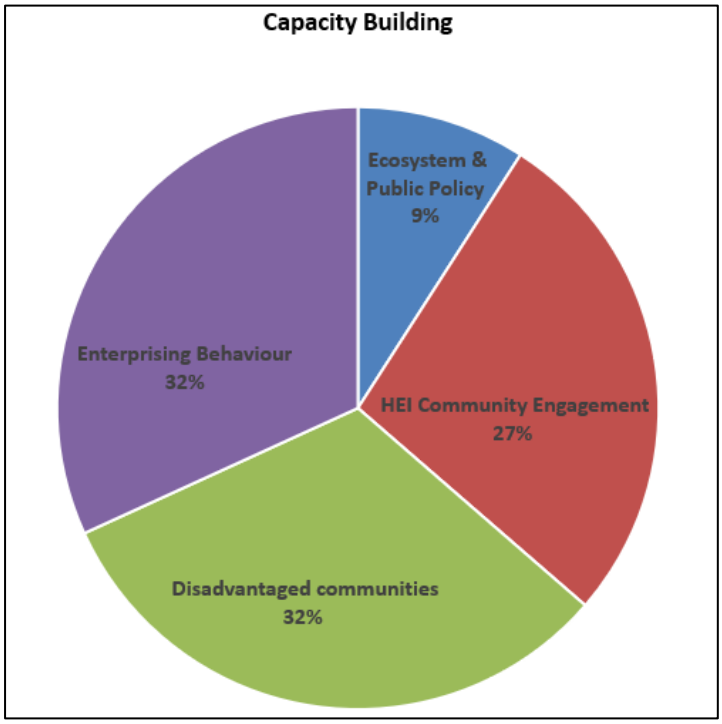
Theme 4. Capacity Building (T4)

The capacity building theme discusses the inherent enterprising potential that resides within disadvantaged communities and identifies how this can be supported. The findings from this study indicated that disadvantaged communities are untapped sources of creativity and talent and could make significant societal contributions if greater support were available. In this regard HEI CE expert #8 noted: "*maybe universities don't recognise enough the real skills that people have in a day- to-day way in disadvantaged communities when it comes to enterprising behaviour".* It was noteworthy as evidenced from Figure 6.18, that there was almost equal contribution across three expert areas of HEI community engagement, disadvantaged communities and enterprising behaviour in the development of this theme.

Several study participants described the enterprising potential within disadvantaged communities, for example DA expert #14 shared: "*there is something about your world view as a disabled person that has been able to benefit others. I think being able to untap that creativity, that way of viewing or doing would give some people a huge sense of themselves. There is no end to the potential."* EB expert # 6 concurred when she said: "*in all my experience working with female drug users, working with members of the Traveller community* [ethnic minority], *working with prisoners of all sorts, the amount of knowledge I have learned from them, we need to look at these groups*

as untapped sources of talent and build upon their existing skills and abilities". Ecosystem expert #2 also identified the: *"huge potential and creativity that is present in disadvantaged communities and those removed from the labour market".*

Figure 6.18 - Participant Contribution to Capacity Building Theme



Source: NVivo Study Database File exported to Excel.

Findings from this study suggested that HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives should recognise and value the knowledge and enterprising potential within disadvantaged communities and consider how this may be '*untapped*'. This may be achieved through capacity building and co-creation approaches to development. According to HEI CE expert #8: *"we need to recognise different types of knowledge and recognise them equally. HEIs may pool our knowledge in this area with the communities to develop training or capacity building together*". Moreover, DA expert #15 cautioned: *"if universities are not engaging in this way….there is a whole level of knowledge and*

experience that society is missing out on". Several study participants shared this sentiment that society is missing out on the potential contribution that disadvantaged communities could make. Providing greater encouragement and appropriate support may benefit both communities and society more broadly.

Figure 6.19 - Summary of Findings – Theme 4. Capacity Building (T4)

- Disadvantaged communities are untapped sources of creativity and talent and could make significant societal contribution if greater encouragement were available.
- Enterprising potential or creativity may be untapped through capacity building approaches.
- Capacity building approaches assist disadvantaged communities in building upon existing skills and knowledge which may not be recognised.
- HEIs need to value community knowledge and academic knowledge equally, which may be challenging.

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

A capacity building approach in community education recognises that marginalised and disadvantaged communities have capacities which may not be recognisable to themselves (Connolly, 2010). This study extends theoretical knowledge by identifying the value that capacity building approaches may bring to supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. Findings from this study indicate that disadvantaged communities should be considered as "*untapped sources of potential or creativity*". Participants suggested that solutions to untapping the enterprising potential of disadvantaged communities require HEIs to value the knowledge and skills inherent within communities. Robinson and Hudson (2013) refer to this as the co-creation or co-production of knowledge. According to the academic literature, co-creation values equally knowledge within the academy and the community and moves

away from deficit-based models of engagement (Rawsthrone and dePree, 2019; Gidley et al, 2010). Findings from this case study corroborate this analysis as summarised by HEI CE expert #8 when she said: " *it is not about a community deficit model. It's like, we are not saying these poor people need us. We're saying there's loads of resources in the community. Wouldn't it be great if we could tap into those?".* Berglund and Johansson (2007) introduced a critical pedagogic (Freire, 1972) perspective to inclusive regional entrepreneurship development (*cf* section 4.5), findings from this study emphasise the importance of the inclusion of capacity building as a construct in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

Theme 5. Tailoring (T5)

In sharing their perspective on the challenges that disadvantaged communities may experience in developing or expressing enterprising potential, the majority of study participants identified that tailored provision was required. As DA expert #15 noted: "*the 'we treat everyone the same' doesn't work when it comes to disadvantaged communities, because everyone experiences different barriers and challenges".* The tailoring theme encompasses: (1) the identification of additional barriers that disadvantaged communities may experience in developing enterprising behaviour; (2) highlights the need for tailored provision; and (3) provides insight on study participants' ideas for HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

The constituent knowledge experts identified the complex and additional challenges that disadvantaged communities may experience in developing enterprising capabilities. Beyond the education challenges that were discussed in Theme 3, findings from this study identified additional distinctive challenges including: racism; network

deficits; childcare issues; lack of finance; homelessness; ineligibility for government supports (e.g. lack of Personal Public Service number); addiction; lack of role models, and an overdependence on social welfare. A significant challenge raised by study participants was the lack of self-confidence or self-esteem amongst disadvantaged communities, as EB expert #4 shared: *"the most important thing is driving confidence of these people. Confidence, I think is the number one thing that holds people back. So actually, creating some of that confidence frees up somebody hugely to be able then to engage and have hope or belief in their ability".*

Study participants shared that in order to build confidence and address some of the additional challenges that disadvantaged communities experience in developing or expressing enterprising behaviour that tailored or targeted provision is required. As DA expert #12 shared: *"tailored or targeted initiatives are important because they recognise the multiple disadvantages that the Traveller community* [ethnic minority] *experiences such as lack of confidence, illiteracy, skills deficits etc.".* Also, from his experience, HEI CE expert #10 suggested that a HEI community engagement initiative supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour: *"given its nature, a one size fits all won't work. I think it must be tailored".*

Findings from this study indicated that participation by disadvantaged communities in tailored provision supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour may lead to future participation in mainstream entrepreneurial initiatives. Ecosystem expert #2 suggested: "*I think anything that can start to just give people a sample, a taste, a confidence building piece could be really helpful for underrepresented groups to feel that they belong and have every right to aspire ".* She went on to say: "*I think sometimes for*

underrepresented groups it is an introduction that needs to happen. The mainstreaming works better once the introduction has been made in a positive way".

Several participants suggested several formats for inclusive and tailored HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. As DA expert #15 noted: *"across the HEI campus there is knowledge and information that can be really useful to support our community to become more enterprising, but it needs to be accessible",* HEI CE expert further explained: "*HEIs are repositories of wisdom, information and knowledge, but it is packaging and tailoring it in a way that disadvantaged communities can understand".* Building upon the programme and design element discussed in Theme 3, DA expert #15 shared: *"there is lots of creative ways that HEIs could run this. They could host ideas workshops on a Saturday that could support people to develop their ideas further*." Ecosystem expert #1 suggested: "*brainstorming workshops helping people come up with innovative ideas"* and as Ecosystem expert #2 noted: "*this would give people the time and space to explore ideas and possibilities, often that is what under-represented communities need".*

The opportunity to involve HEI students in the learning experience alongside disadvantaged communities was considered a unique differentiator that HEIs could offer outside mainstream or tailored provision with the entrepreneurial ecosystem. As EB expert #6 shared: "*the mixed group approach is phenomenal*". Involving students and community members in the program "*would enable knowledge and ideas to be pooled",* said HEI CE expert #8 and she went on to say, "*there is something really exciting about that*". From the HEI perspective, EB expert #7 acknowledged: "*having those sorts of courses are good for our everyday regular students to also see that connection and to broaden their ideas about who comes to college and what the role of the university is".*

Moreover, from the community perspective DA expert #14 shared: *"if we are exposed to people with disabilities doing their thing in their own way, as they want to, our attitudes are being challenged and that is only better for society. We are a diverse group of people; Ireland is increasingly more diverse. Let's celebrate it a bit without being tokenistic. Let's actually support people to do what they can at a pace and rate which they can".* Such initiatives may be tailored to be more inclusive of the challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities in developing or expressing enterprising behaviour, yet also include HEI students in the learning process.

Figure 6.20 - Summary of Findings – Theme 5. Tailoring (T5)

- The additional and distinctive barriers experienced by disadvantaged communities in developing entrepreneurial potential requires tailored support and provision.
- A lack of self-confidence or self-esteem may inhibit disadvantaged communities from expressing or developing enterprising behaviour.
- HEIs have the knowledge and expertise to assist disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour, but it needs to be tailored and accessible.
- Involving HEI students and disadvantaged communities together in a group learning process is a key differentiator that HEIs can offer, with benefits accruing to the HEI, students and the community.

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

Contemporary academic literature identifies that disadvantaged communities experience additional and distinctive challenges in developing their entrepreneurial potential and require tailored and customised support (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019). The academic literature is predominantly focused on the tailoring of entrepreneurial provision supporting entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow). This study extends theoretical knowledge

by addressing the requirement for tailored provision supporting enterprising behaviour. This study identifies that HEIs have the knowledge and expertise to support disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour, but that initiatives need to be tailored to address the challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities (e.g. lack of self-esteem or self-confidence). HEIs have the knowledge and expertise to generate unique offerings for communities (Quillinan, 2018) and this study extends this perspective by suggesting a role for HEI students in the process.

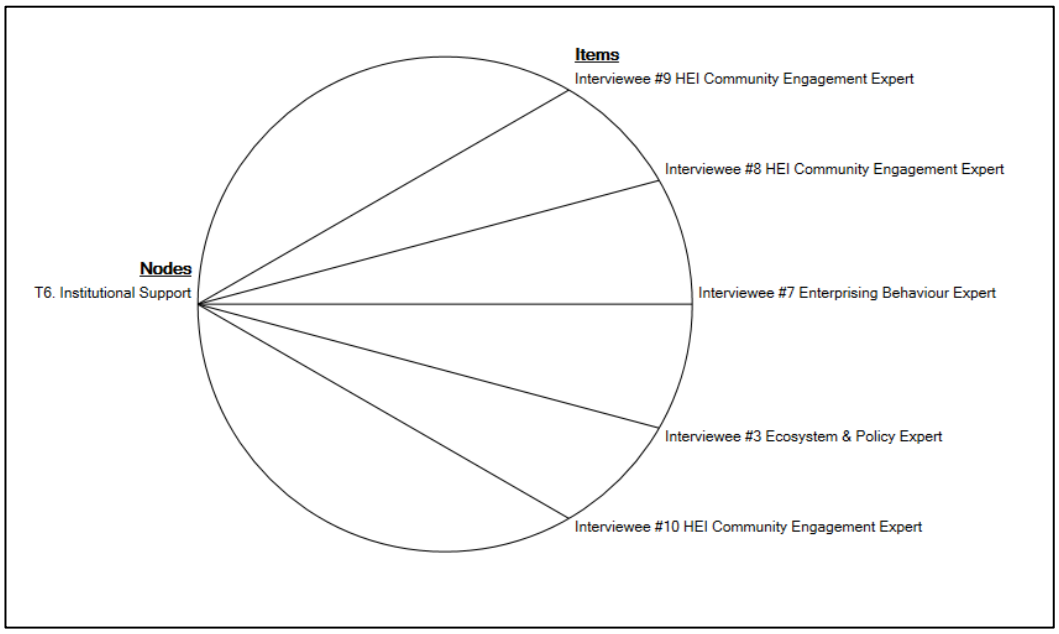
Theme 6. Institutional Support (T6)

The institutional support theme encompasses the institutional mission and infrastructure within higher education that supports higher education community engagement and enables endeavours to develop. As observed from Figure 6.21, the contribution to this theme stemmed from constituent knowledge experts within higher education. Given their expertise and lived experience this was perhaps not surprising. Institutional support was discussed by participants through bottom-up and top-down approaches and the benefits and challenges of both were discussed.

From her experience, EB expert #7 suggested that engagement activity is initiated by staff who are motivated by community engagement: " *with these sort of initiatives, there is a core of people who 'this is their thing' and they will put themselves out there for the extra time that is involved. You don't get an allowance for it; you just do it"*. Later she developed this further: *"we are very good at ground up sort of initiatives, you just go let's just try it. You don't really look for anyone to ok it. You just do it*". However, she acknowledged that: *"there is a culture in the university that allows that to happen".* HEI CE expert #8 explained further: "*as a university we were very non-hierarchical as*

universities, go you could get access to people, senior people and get decisions made". Despite the success of ground-up initiatives it was identified that over time without support this cannot be sustained. HEI CE expert #8 identified: "*there is currently no workload model that recognises this* [community engagement] *as part of their work* [academic staff]. EB expert #7 shared: *"within the university structure, when it comes to valuing each of us, it's about hours on a timetable* – [community engagement] *gets less recognition because actually we are doing it in a voluntary capacity. The problem is sometimes you get to the point where you go, enough I actually can't do all these things. So, then you start to step back".*

Figure 6.21 - File Contribution to Institutional support node (T6)



Source: NVivo Study Database File – Node Query

Findings from this study indicated that resourcing and institutional support are required in the development of HEI community engagement enterprising behaviour initiatives. As EB expert #7 noted: "*if the university is going to do it, they have to fund it and the resources need to be there, activities may grow from the bottom-up, but they*

require top-down support". HEI CE expert #9 concurred: *"a strategy without any resources or infrastructure, remains on a shelf".* From a senior management perspective, HEI CE expert # 10 identified that :*" it is difficult for the university, to maintain or sustain an initiative...that doesn't actually contribute to its own kind of strategic objectives".* From this perspective, if an initiative fits within the HEI's community engagement mission or strategic objective then it is more likely to receive institutional support. In the context of supporting community engagement endeavours HEI CE expert #10 questioned: "*why would we get involved in an area that is already pretty well addressed, particularly where we don't have the know how? What we are good at and what is the value we can bring to the table?* He answered :*"Our role is around learning and teaching and upskilling and training and providing support which builds self-confidence and self-esteem and removing barriers and encourage inclusion and partnership. These are the kinds of things that we can do".* Moreover, he suggested HEI community engagement endeavours that facilitate *"high impact learning"* involving students and communities "*is very beneficial for the university*" (HEI CE expert # 10). Such HEI community engagement can provide value for the community and the HEI where academic knowledge and expertise is addressing an unmet need.

Figure 6.22 - Summary of Findings – Theme 6. Institutional Support (T6)

- Community engagement initiatives may originate from the ground-up by staff with a natural propensity towards community engagement. This may be facilitated by the culture in a HEI which enables this to happen
- Successful community engagement endeavours involve ground-up and top-down support
- Institutional support is recognised through resourcing and workload allocation models which support community engagement
- Where an endeavour fits within the objectives and mission of the HEI it is more

likely to be supported and sustained

- HEI community engagement initiatives can provide value where knowledge and expertise are addressing an unmet need.

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

The Holland framework (2001) identifies a mission that emphasises engagement and institutional infrastructure that supports engagement practices as a foundational element of HEI community engagement. Community engagement can fulfil different social purposes and HEIs may approach community engagement from different stances or perspectives according to their mission and ethos (Hazelkorn,2016a). Different types of engagement activities are more relevant and suitable to HEIs depending on the perspective, agenda, ethos and mission of the institution. Findings from this study, emphasised that where an engagement endeavour has a fit within a HEI's strategic objective, then it is more likely to be supported and maintained. HEIs that have developed successful inclusive entrepreneurial education programmes for disadvantaged communities have embedded the initiative within their societal outreach mission and demonstrated the mutual benefit to both the university and the community (Shaheen, 2011; 2016). Findings from this study indicated that HEI community engagement initiatives can provide value where knowledge and expertise is addressing an unmet need.

Whilst community engagement initiatives may originate organically by engaged academic staff, findings from this study are in synergy with the literature that institutional commitment is a major factor in developing successful community engagement with disadvantaged communities (Robinson et al, 2012; Shaheen 2011;2016) and that supportive university leadership and management is critical to the long-term success of community engagement initiatives (Powell and Dayson, 2013, Kingma, 2014).

Theme 7. Context (T7)

Context is considered a central theme in both HEI community engagement (Laing and Maddison, 2007) and entrepreneurial education (Maritz and Brown, 2013; Thomassen et al, 2019). Throughout the series of interviews, study participants naturally made several contextual references. To aid clarity, this theme was analysed across three levels: a macro level (national and international), meso level (university and region) and micro level (community). This enabled insight into the broader environment and its impact in relation to the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. All 15 study participants contributed to this theme and a significant body of qualitative information was gathered. The findings presented in this theme reflect highlights of participants contribution and related policy documents. These are presented synchronously and identify that awareness of context is required in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. This theme is a useful exemplar of the coding approach adopted in this moving from the particular to the general (Saldana, 2015). In this case, particular elements are identified within the study which give rise to the more general or abstract theme of context as a construct of relevance in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

Macro Level

At a European and National level, the policy context is increasingly supportive of collaboration and engagement between higher education and local communities. The European Commission's overarching political strategy, Europe 2020, aims to support employment, productivity and social cohesion in Europe. Higher education policy resides within the EU's Education and Training Strategy 2020. As part of the ET 2020 strategy the Renewed Agenda for Higher Education (European Commission, 2017) is the first EU

policy document to prioritise broader societal engagement by universities. One of the four priorities of the Renewed Agenda is 'Building inclusive and connected HE systems. This priority clearly reflects a community engagement angle that is distinct from engagement with business and industry which are covered under a separate priority. The Renewed Agenda notes that '*higher education institutions are not ivory towers, but civic-minded learning communities connected to their communities'* (p. 6). Further, it describes the kind of engagement that could achieve this connection:

> *Some institutions are developing their profile as 'civic universities' by integrating local, regional and societal issues into curricula, involving the local community in teaching and research projects, providing adult learning and communicating and building links with local communities. (…) HEIs should be engaged in the development of their cities and regions, whether through contributing to development strategies, cooperation with businesses, the public and voluntary sectors or supporting public dialogue about societal issues… (p. 7)*

At National level, Ireland has adopted a range of legislation, policies and strategies that provide levers to strengthen community engagement in higher education (*cf* Chapter 2). Ireland's National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (Department of Education and Skills, 2011) refers to 'engagement' as one of the three core roles of higher education, alongside teaching and research. It states

> *Higher education institutions need to become more firmly embedded in the social and economic contexts of the communities they live in and serve. Achieving this will help them become more relevant and responsive and will also enhance their diversity and distinctiveness as institutions (DES, 2011, p.13).*

As part of the strategy, Ireland has developed the Higher Education System Performance Framework, the latest version of which (for 2018-2020) emphasises that Irish Government policy '*not only seeks engagement with the goal of economic innovation, but also broader community engagement'* (Department of Education and Skills, 2018, p. 11). The framework requires that HEIs define key performance indicators (KPIs) in relation to their specific engagement missions. The more recent Project Ireland 2040 National Planning Framework also foresees an important role for universities in local and regional development, as well as in meeting sustainable development goals (Government of Ireland, 2019).

Ecosystem expert # 3 noted, "*in an Irish context, I think there is a genuine interest in each institution at the highest level to ensure they have as diverse and as broad a spectrum of students, at every level. There is a real passion in our institutions to widen participation, and it's not just tick the box".* This is also reflected through The National Plan for Equity of Access to Higher Education 2015– 2019 (Department of Education and Skills, 2015), which in line with its parent strategy, the National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (Department of Education and Skills 2011), which prioritises the expansion of participation in higher education to include those previously excluded. In particular, emphasis is placed on engaging under-represented groups such as those disadvantaged by socio-economic barriers, those who are first-time mature students and those wishing to access higher education on a part-time/flexible basis.

Meso Level

At the university level, HEI CE expert #10 shared the background of community engagement at TU Dublin: *"historically there was a strong emphasis all the way back to*

our establishment in the 1890s in the inner city, because we were located in the inner city on inclusion and addressing part-time education". Over time there was a "*gradual evolution into the quite formalised structure of community engagement that we have today"*. This background, coupled with the designation as a technological university, has led to a strong focus on community engagement at TU Dublin. The Technological Universities Act 2018 defines a Technological University (TU) as having a specific focus on community and business engagement, in addition to traditional university functions of teaching, learning and research (Technological Universities Act, 2018). In the application for TU status, TU4Dublin outlined the planned community engagement strategy which states that:

> *Civic engagement at TU4Dublin means staff and/or students collaborating with and in the community, with the support and recognition of the university, to generate reciprocal and mutual gain for both the university and community. This can take place at local, regional, national and global levels, in the furtherance of knowledge and the development of graduate attributes, and for community/societal development. In using the term 'community' we are particularly mindful of the need to collaborate with underserved communities, in addition to other communities, groups and individuals (*TU4Dublin, 2018 p.44)

This strategy clearly identifies that TU Dublin's engagement strategy is inclusive of disadvantaged and underserved communities.

One of the goals of a Technological University listed in the TU Act is to widen participation in higher education (stems from the macro policy discussed previously). There is clearly a mandate to reduce inequalities, and to make cities and communities more sustainable by empowering individuals within. More recently, the TU Dublin

strategy to 2030 (TU Dublin, 2020) has been developed through the lens of the UN Sustainability Development Goals (SDGs) and it encompasses a number of the 17 goals (SDG 10 Partnership, SDG 4 Quality Education, SDG 10 & 11 Reduced inequalities and sustainable cities and communities), as HEI CE expert #10 noted: " *having the President of the university advocating on this* [community engagement with disadvantaged communities], *I think is very helpful. It makes it ok to do that. People are encouraged to do that – it's part of their job*".

Stemming from TU Dublin's graduate attributes which include enterprising and engaged graduates, HEI CE expert #8 shared that a number of TU Dublin projects which are *"focused on engagement with underserved community groups"* merge the engaged and enterprise agenda linking students, communities and academics together through service learning. Academic staff's willingness and ambition to engage with community through entrepreneurial education and enterprise initiatives was shared as an enabler for the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. TU Dublin's focus on supporting minority entrepreneurship was identified in the Joining the Dots reports with the need to support enterprise and entrepreneurship a key recommendation arising from the study. (GLLF, 2009;2013; 2020)

Study participants highlighted the opportunity that the new Grangegorman campus offered to TU Dublin to become further embedded with local and disadvantaged communities. HEI CE expert #10 shared: "*in terms of the Grangegorman development, there was a real sense from day one that the development would be seen as a way of uplifting the local communities and that people would share the benefit of this major development happening"*. TU Dublin's vision for the new campus at Grangegorman is outlined in the GDA Strategic Plan (2011) when they said that the campus must:

> *act as a catalyst for partnership and alliances between academia, enterprise, culture, the community and the city. It is this interaction and dynamic that the campus will promote through its design and co-location of activities*

Speaking about the campus development to date, HEI CE expert #11 noted "*this is a porous place, it belongs to the area. When you are on the TU site, it is not about creating an ivory tower…it is trying to create a sense of community".*

At a regional level, the Dublin Regional Enterprise Plan 2020 (Department of Business, Enterprise and Innovation, 2019) is in line with its parent policy, the National Policy Statement on Entrepreneurship (Department of Jobs, Enterprise and Innovation, 2014) which identifies social target groups that are under-represented and disadvantaged in terms of entrepreneurial activity. The Dublin Regional Skills Forum (Department of Education and Skills, 2015) is an alliance of enterprise, higher education and training providers which support the skills development set out in the enterprise plan. Whilst current provision and focus in this plan is focused on supporting entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) in disadvantaged communities, several study participants referred to the Dublin Regional Skills Forum as an opportunity for inclusion of a HEI community enterprising behaviour programme.

Micro Level

The analysis at the micro level builds upon the findings from the capacity building theme (T4) and provides further granular insight. Several study participants made references to enterprising behaviour and initiatives within disadvantaged communities within the region of TU Dublin. Ecosystem expert #2 shared: *"if you look back traditionally a lot of the poorer communities in Dublin had a real entrepreneurial spirit,*

whether that was trading in Moore Street or other ways". DA expert #15 shared: " *there is a history of the dealers in Dublin city, the women who set up stalls and prams selling fruit and fish or whatever when men became unemployed. Their families are still involved, they are very enterprising".* DA expert #15 also talked about her local community: *"a very, very, bright capable group of women, who have taken ownership of their flat complex from maintenance etc.* She went on to say *"they are brilliant, the amount of work they do is shocking and it's all voluntary – they take kids away camping, day trips. They just see opportunities – they set up a sewing club with the old folk. Developing this behaviour further in this group would be amazing".* This background community knowledge and information was considered an important contextual element in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

Figure 6.23 - Summary of Findings – Theme 7. Context (T 7)

- Context impacts the design and development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives
- Three sociological phenomena levels are considered relevant to the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives – micro, meso and macro
- Context is embedded within each of the prior themes discussed

Source: Derived by Researcher from Data Analysis.

As described in Chapter Two, Hazelkorn's (2016a) framework for community engagement categorises different models of engagement based on distinct societal objectives. The social justice model focuses on addressing social disadvantage in surrounding communities and emphasises activities such as ensuring equal access to university, community-based learning for students, community-based research and volunteering by academic staff, and other activities aimed at community empowerment. The economic development model emphasises the traditional third mission focus on

economic growth, innovation, entrepreneurship and business engagement. The public good model proposed by Hazelkorn provides a holistic 'middle ground' between the two approaches proposed above. This model focuses on contributing to community development and revitalisation activities, both from an economic and a non-economic perspective, with a strong 'place-based' emphasis on the role of the university in supporting its local and regional environment. The value of Hazelkorn's framework is that it acknowledges that different definitions of engagement's societal objectives will result in different communities being identified as the university's primary partners. This in turn leads to different responses within the institution and by policy. For example, engagement that focuses on economic development will prioritise business and innovation communities; engagement with an explicit social justice agenda will create partnerships with disadvantaged communities; and other forms of engagement may address parallel objectives and engage with diverse communities.

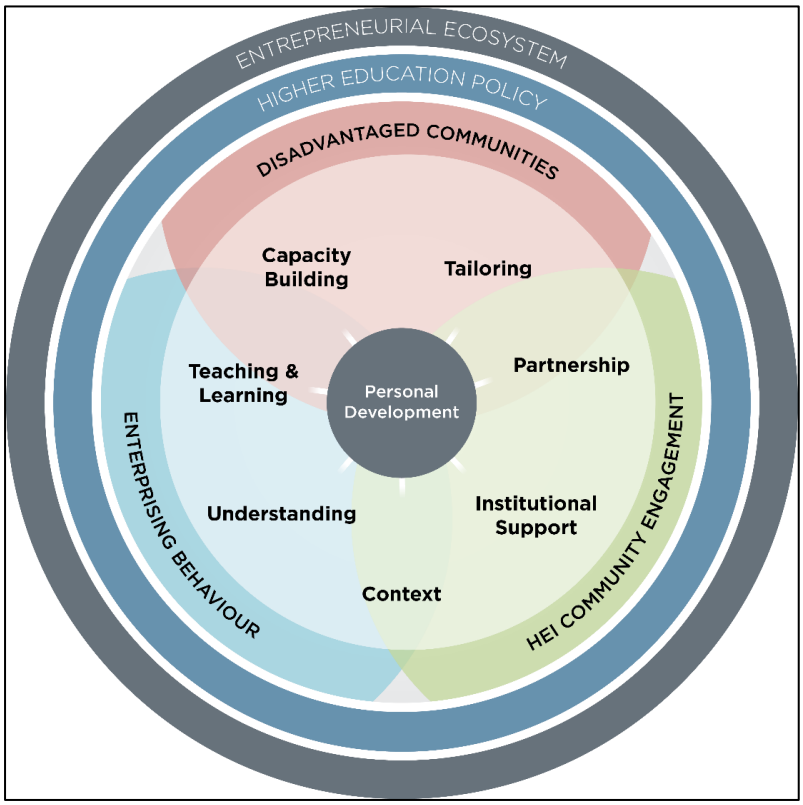
In the context of this study, the HEI's history and designation as a Technological University has positioned its community engagement piece within Hazelkorn's 'middle ground with a place-based emphasis', both from an economic and non-economic perspective. As HEI CE expert # 10 noted: "*my sense is that within a large organisation it is difficult to focus on any specific area and say we are or are not a particular type of university"*. However, he acknowledged the answer may rest: "*within our Technological University Status, …the main issue being the need to be responsive to the environment (including community) in which we operate and react and respond to a wide range of external and internal stakeholders".*

6.5 An Evidence-Based Framework

The conceptual framework presented in Chapter Four represents an integration of the literature across the three disciplinary fields under study to address the primary research question. The conceptual framework (*cf* section 4.5) was the departure point for primary inquiry. This framework and its constructs represented a conceptual hypothesis of the crucial factors which may influence the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. The critical realist philosophy underpinning this study facilitated the development of the integrated conceptual framework (*cf* section 4.5 and 5.2) and the adoption of a qualitative approach to gain interpretive insights from multiple perspectives both within the HEI and the community, regarding the key factors for consideration in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

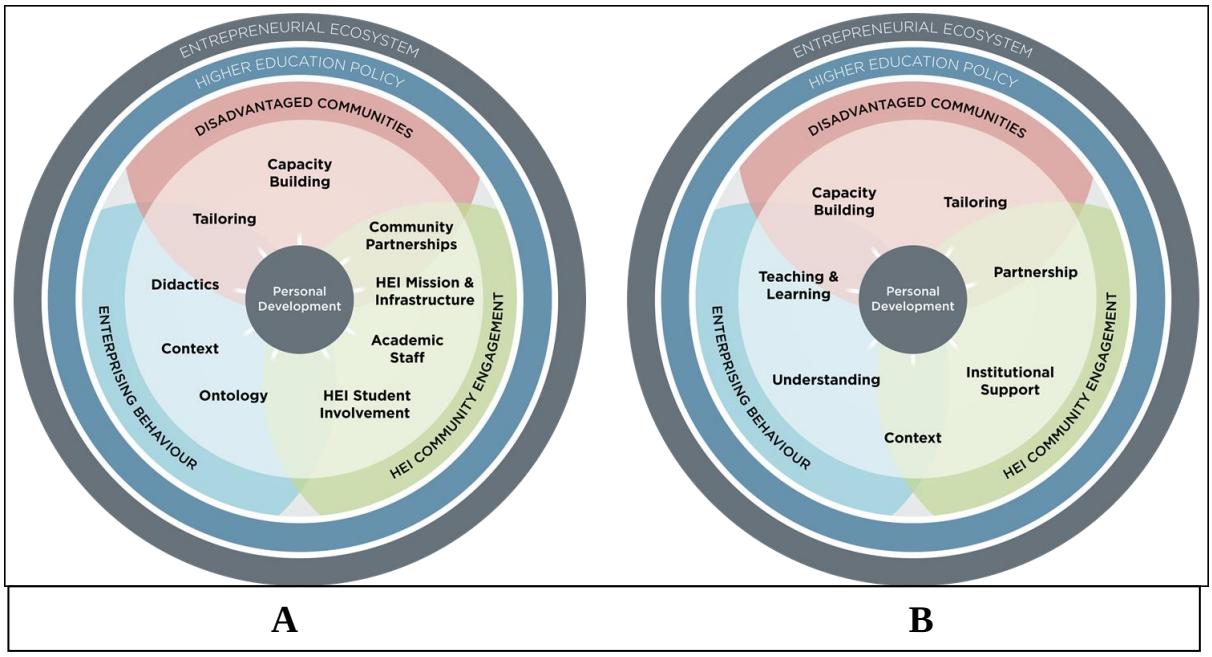
From a critical realist stance, these key factors may be understood as the causal pathways or mechanisms (Ylikoski, 2018; Haigh et al., 2019) through which HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives may be achieved. Case study design enabled an in-depth understanding of the structures and conditions (Gross, 2009) within a HEI and a disadvantaged community which generate the causal pathways for community engagement endeavours to be achieved. The evidence-based framework, presented in Figure 6.24 reflects the abductive nature of this study which involved the simultaneous development of theoretical framework (conceptual framework), empirical fieldwork and case analysis (Dubois and Gadde, 2002). The final evidence-based framework was constructed through an iterative and recursive process moving forward and backward between the conceptual framework, theory and empirical findings.

Figure 6.24 – Evidence-based Framework Supporting Inclusive HEI Community Enterprising Behaviour Initiatives



The original framework containing nine constructs has been revised based upon the data analysis and findings from the case study. The findings from the study has resulted in a revision of the framework, including the terminology used and the merging of some of the original constructs into broader constructs as presented in Figure 6.25B. As Figure 6.25B now represents an evidence-based framework, the core constructs reflect the language and terminology derived from data analysis. The development of the constructs within the evidence-based framework and the importance of their positioning is discussed below. These constructs reflect the critical factors for consideration by a HEI in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

Figure 6.25 -Conceptual Framework & Evidenced-based Framework Comparison



- **Understanding**

For the first time, this study has identified that broadening the understanding of entrepreneurship to enterprising behaviour (Gibb, 2002, Blenker et al., 2011;2012) has relevance and importance for disadvantaged communities. As noted by, DA expert #15: *"I think encouraging enterprising behaviour is hugely relevant to our community…you are going to support people to move themselves where they want to be…that could have a radical transformative effect"*. Fayolle and Gailly (2008) included an ontological level in the design of entrepreneurial education initiatives which explicitly defines entrepreneurship and associated education approaches. Moving outside the higher education setting into the community setting, the construct has been renamed as Understanding to reflect the language from the dataset. HEI Community enterprising behaviour initiatives are premised on the understanding that they can provide support in *"building a sense of capacity and agency and self-confidence*" (HEI CE expert #8) which

may be lacking in disadvantaged communities. This "*values and supports the contribution*" (DA expert #14) that disadvantaged communities can make. It may facilitate "*as a precursor*"(DA expert #14) *"jumping off point"(*HEI CE expert #8) or " *a sample…taste or introduction"* (Ecosystem expert #2) to further engagement. Having a clear understanding of the goals and objectives of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives will enable all relevant stakeholder to clearly articulate the vision and value of the initiative (Shaheen 2011; 2016). Whilst integrated in the context of Disadvantaged Communities and HEI Community Engagement, the Understanding construct originates from entrepreneurial education and theory (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008) and resides within the Enterprising Behaviour frame in the final framework.

- **Teaching & Learning**

Didactics is often reflected as a core construct in entrepreneurial education theory (Blenker et al, 2006; Thomassen et al, 2019). The predominant focus of entrepreneurial education academic literature is within the higher education setting. In a novel approach, this study extends the academic literature by moving outside the higher education setting into the community. In this context, using language derived from data analysis, this construct has been renamed to Teaching and Learning. This construct encompasses all elements for consideration in the design and development of HEI Community enterprising behaviour initiatives. Jones et al (2014) identified that supporting the development of enterprising behaviour may be characterised by active, participative, experiential and subjective pedagogy with a strong student-centred focus. This pedagogical style was deemed relevant for disadvantaged communities who may be

considered ‘*non-traditional learners’* with *‘insecurities around being in an education environment’’* (DA expert #13).

Following data analysis, the Academic Staff and HEI Students constructs from the conceptual framework were merged into the Teaching and Learning construct. Having appropriate academic staff with a disposition, orientation and perspective to be externally focused (Quillinan et al, 2018) was deemed an important element in the design of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives as argued by DA expert #15: “*this is people styled work…if you don’t have the personality, …interest… or understanding and if you are not buying into the idea that you are doing things with people not for people, it’s not going to work”*. In the final framework, the Teaching and Learning construct has been placed in the overlap between the Enterprising Behaviour frame and the Disadvantaged Communities frame. This reflects how this study extends the academic literature by considering the design of entrepreneurial education in community settings. The inclusion of a steering committee (representative of relevant stakeholders) and the co-location of an initiative between the HEI and community within this construct are exemplars of the contribution of new knowledge in this regard.

- **Capacity Building**

The Capacity Building construct resides close to Teaching and Learning in the final framework and within the overlap between the Enterprising Behaviour frame and the Disadvantaged Communities frame. Findings from the data highlighted the importance of including Capacity Building as a key element in the development of HEI community engagement initiatives which supports the learning of enterprising behaviour. This could have resided as a sub-theme within Teaching and Learning; however, the data

spoke of the crucial nature of its inclusion as a stand-alone construct in the context of engagement with disadvantaged communities. Moving beyond deficit models of education or community engagement (Rawsthorne and de Pree, 2019), HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives should acknowledge the *"huge potential and creativity that is present in disadvantaged communities*"(DA expert #14). For the first time, this study identifies how "*HEIs may pool our knowledge in this area* [enterprising behaviour] *with communities to develop training and capacity building together"* (HEI CE expert #8*)*. Community engagement endeavours that are co-created build upon the inherent enterprising potential that resides within disadvantage communities, and requires HEIs to value community experience and knowledge and academic knowledge equally.

- **Tailoring**

Due to the additional and distinctive challenges experienced by disadvantaged communities in developing enterprising potential, tailored provision is required. Tailoring is identified as a key element for consideration as reflected upon by DA expert #12 *"tailoring is important because it recognises the multiple disadvantages that the Traveller community [ethnic minority] experiences such as lack of confidence, illiteracy, skills deficits etc."*. Whilst contemporary literature identifies the need for tailored provision supporting the development of entrepreneurial behaviour (Cooney and Licciardi, 2019), this study enhances theory by identifying the need for tailored provision supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. As summarised by HEI CE expert #10 *"given its nature* [enterprising behaviour community initiative]*, a one size fits all won't work. I think it must be tailored".*

According to Kingma (2014) community-based enterprise initiatives that involved HEI students had a dynamism and vibrancy that was a key element of the endeavour. Findings from this study extends this perspective by suggesting that initiatives may be tailored to include both HEI students and disadvantaged communities in group learning "*enabling knowledge and ideas to be pooled*" (HEI CE expert #8). As in the conceptual framework, the Tailoring construct remains within the Disadvantaged Community frame identifying its priority as an element of consideration in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

- **Partnership**

In both the conceptual framework and the evidence-based framework, the Partnership construct resides within the frames between Disadvantaged Communities and HEI Community engagement. Following data analysis and reflecting the language of the end-user, the language of this construct has been minorly modified to the term Partnership. How partnerships are built is the key to successful community engagement between universities and communities (Soska and Butterfield, 2013). This study identified that communication, intercultural understanding, honesty, realism and above all, mutual reciprocity are key in successful partnerships. As identified by HEI CE expert #10: *"in terms of the university and community engagement it is important that mutually supportive objectives are being achieved"*. HEI community engagement enterprising behaviour initiatives should fulfil a university's community engagement agenda and mutually meet community needs. The Partnership terminology is also inclusive of other stakeholders as identified in the Teaching and Learning Construct within the community

or broader ecosystem who may support HEIs (Bringle et al 2012, Kilpatrick and Loechel, 2004) in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

- **HEI Institutional Support**

This study identified that community engagement endeavours that fit within the strategic objectives of a HEI have a higher propensity to be supported. As noted by HEI CE expert #10: "*it is difficult for a HEI to maintain or sustain an initiative…that doesn't actually contribute to its own kind of strategic objectives".* HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives require funding and resourcing to develop and be sustained, as EB expert #7 noted: *"if the university is going to do it, they have to fund it and the resources need to be there"*. Institutional commitment is realised through supportive leadership (Kingma, 2014) and an institutional infrastructure that supports engagement practice (Sandmann and Kliewer, 2010; Holland, 2001). Without HEI Institutional Support, a HEI community engagement initiative supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour will not have the opportunity to grow or be sustained. As such this is regarded as a key construct in the development of a community engagement endeavours. Originating from the Holland Framework for Community engagement (2001) and theory of HEI community engagement this construct resides within the HEI Community Engagement frame. HEI Community engagement is always context specific and arising from institutional histories and locations (Laing and Maddison, 2007). Context as a key construct is discussed in the subsequent point.

- **Context**

In the final framework, the Context construct has been placed between the Enterprising Behaviour and the HEI Community Engagement frame. The academic literature identifies that context is a central theme in both HEI community engagement (Laing and Maddison, 2007; Benneworth et al., 2018; Farnell, 2020) and entrepreneurial education (Maritz and Brown, 2013; Thomassen et al, 2019). Drawing both fields together and removing disciplinary silos, this enhances theoretical knowledge by including Context as a key construct in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. The development of these initiatives will always be context specific arising from institutional history and location, as well as a HEI's view about its specific engagement mission or objectives. This study identified contextual elements of relevance at the macro, meso and micro level. The interconnecting contextual elements will decide the distinct approach each HEI can provide to the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives.

- **Personal Development**

Enterprising behaviour programmes within higher education focus on building self-efficacy through holistic personal development incorporating broad entrepreneurial supportive competencies and skills such as creativity, flexibility and adaptability (Blenker et al, 2015). Resulting from the additional and distinctive barriers experienced by disadvantaged communities (e.g. lack of self-confidence), this study has identified the relevance of the learning of enterprising behaviour for disadvantaged communities. In both the conceptual framework and the evidence-based framework, personal development has been placed at the centre of the frame identifying personal development for

disadvantaged communities as an anticipated outcome of any HEI community enterprising behaviour initiative. As suggested by EB expert #4: "*this would enable somebody to become a more rounded individual for whatever their next pursuit might be"* or as EB expert #6 noted: "*providing someone with skills that opens their eyes, may be its putting a value on something that they may not have had before".* As observed across this study and captured by DA expert #14, holistic personal development through enterprising behaviour initiatives may serve as a '*starting point….it may in the longer term encourage them* [Disadvantaged communities] *to see that business is not for others but for them as well".*

As in the conceptual framework, the final evidence-based framework acknowledges that supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour takes place within the broader context of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and higher education policy. Several policies and strategies were highlighted throughout this case study to highlight the various factors that may enable or inhibit a HEI Community engagement initiative supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour. For example, in the context of this study European and National higher education policy is broadly supportive of enhanced higher education engagement with disadvantaged communities.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter details the rigorous analytical strategy and findings which have led to the development of an evidence-based framework that addresses the key research question of this study: How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the Learning of Enterprising Behaviour in Disadvantaged communities. The final framework identifies the causal mechanisms which are the critical

factors that influence the development of HEI Community engagement enterprising initiatives. These factors are: (1) Understanding; (2) Teaching and Learning; (3) Capacity Building; (4) Tailoring; (5) Partnership; (6) Institutional Support; and (7) Context. Further, the framework identifies that personal development is an anticipated outcome from HEI community engagement enterprising behaviour initiatives.

The academic literature provides no evidence of how HEIs might support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. Findings from this study address this gap in knowledge by presenting an evidence-based framework designed to support HEIs in the future development of such initiatives. This study has identified that supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities is an unmet and unaddressed need. Through community engagement, HEIs have the opportunity to address this need through the development of tailored provision. Through mutually beneficial partnerships HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives will ensure that HEIs are more equitable, inclusive and accessible to disadvantaged communities. Simultaneously, this type of tailored provision can create personal value for disadvantaged communities and potentially longer term economic and societal benefit. The final chapter of this thesis explores these opportunities and the contribution of this study in further depth.

Chapter 7. Study Contribution and Implications

7.1 Introduction

When this research study began (2016) almost a decade had passed since the global economic crisis and economic growth was returning to many countries. However, a "rising tide does not lift all boats" and there were 96.6 million people at risk of poverty and social exclusion in the EU (OECD, 2017) and an estimated 43.1 million Americans (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). During the period of this study, these figures have risen (Eurostat, 2020) and whilst the long-term socio-economic implications of the Covid-19 pandemic are uncertain, it has already dramatically increased levels of disadvantage and social exclusion (United Nations, 2020). Addressing this concerning social situation requires innovative approaches and it has been suggested that inclusive entrepreneurship may be part of the solution (OECD, 2019). Inclusive entrepreneurship policies recognise the untapped entrepreneurial potential within disadvantaged and under-represented communities through the provision of tailored and targeted support. This thesis explored how HEIs can engage in such supports through community engagement.

The concluding chapter of this thesis considers the implications and contribution that this study makes at a number of levels. The aim of this study was to contribute to existing knowledge by extending the understanding of how HEIs can develop inclusive tailored entrepreneurial education with disadvantaged communities. In this chapter, the key contributions to knowledge emanating from the primary research is explored across the relevant fields of study. Beyond the rigor demonstrated by the academic contributions of this study, this chapter also addresses the relevance of this research study for the stakeholders involved in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. Wiklund, Wright and Zahra (2019) argued that "*relevance without rigor is not relevant*", so the articulation of the theoretical, methodological, practical and policy

contributions of this study throughout this chapter demonstrate both the rigor and relevance of this study. At the close of this chapter, the limitations of this study are discussed to suggest possibilities for future research endeavours.

7.2 Contribution to Knowledge

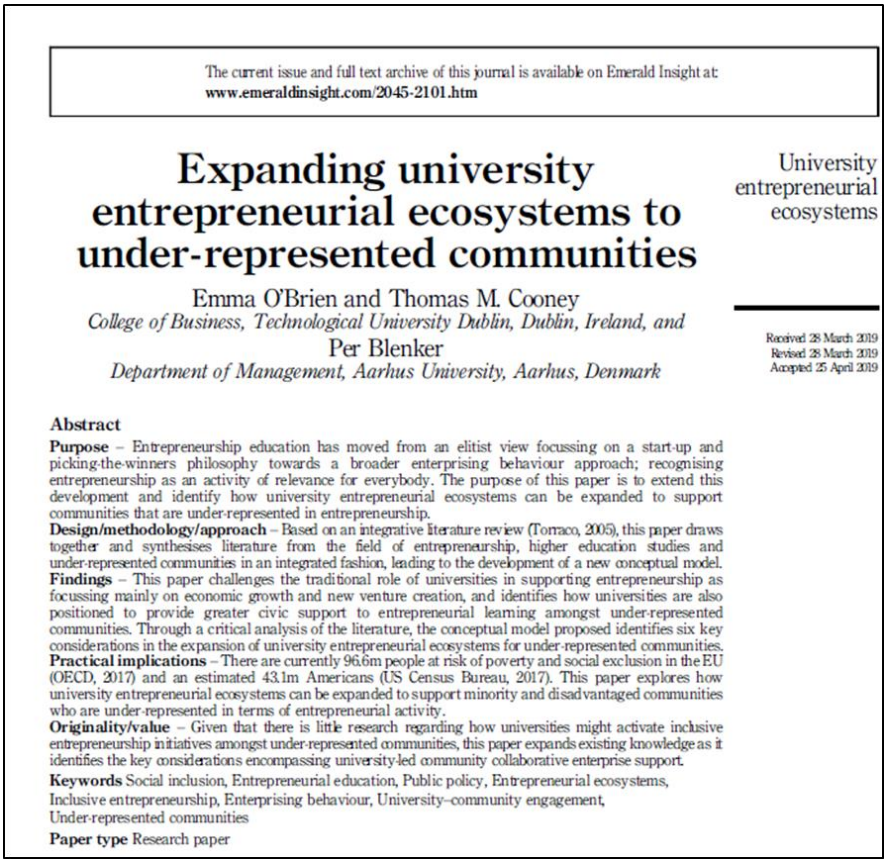
Lock and Golden-Biddle (1997) defined theoretical contribution as *"that which is perceived as unique or novel in light of the extant literature*". In this regard, this study makes four contributions to academic knowledge as discussed in further depth below. The nature of this study required an in-depth and extensive literature review across three research fields with over 600 academic articles cited throughout this study. A literature analysis has highlighted the most utilised journals reflected in this thesis. In the subsequent section, the four academic contributions are discussed and linked to a suitable journal for publication. The contributions are provided in highlighted form in Table 7.1.

7.2.1 Contribution 1: Entrepreneurial Ecosystems – Conceptual Framework

The first academic contribution from this study identified the paucity of academic research regarding HEIs role in supporting entrepreneurial initiatives in disadvantaged and under-represented communities. This study expands existing knowledge on HEI-led collaborative entrepreneurial support initiatives (that have been traditionally dominated by practices of technology transfer and university spin-offs) within entrepreneurial ecosystems. The first contribution involved the development of the conceptual framework as presented at the end of Chapter Four. Moving beyond disciplinary silos the conceptual framework and its constructs were drawn from the fields of (1) HEI community engagement (2) Entrepreneurial Education and (3) Disadvantaged communities. Through

a process of synthesised coherence (Locke and Golden-Biddle, 1997) the conceptual framework presented draws connection between literature and research domains not previously drawn together and provides insight on this previously under-developed research area. This element of the study challenged the traditional role of HEIs in entrepreneurship and proposed an extended role for higher education in entrepreneurial learning through community engagement. The development of the conceptual framework as a novel contribution to the entrepreneurial ecosystem literature was published in the Journal of Entrepreneurship and Public Policy (O'Brien, Cooney and Blenker, 2019). The paper was enhanced following a special issue journal workshop and presentation at the USASBE Conference in Florida, 2019 and subsequent rigorous peer review. Figure 7.1 provides an overview of the journal article and identifies the academic contribution.

Figure 7.1 – Journal Article in Journal of Entrepreneurship and Public Policy



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Expanding university entrepreneurial ecosystems to under-represented communities

Emma O'Brien and Thomas M. Cooney
College of Business, Technological University Dublin, Dublin, Ireland, and
Per Blenker
Department of Management, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark

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Abstract

Purpose – Entrepreneurship education has moved from an elitist view focussing on a start-up and picking-the-winners philosophy towards a broader enterprising behaviour approach; recognising entrepreneurship as an activity of relevance for everybody. The purpose of this paper is to extend this development and identify how university entrepreneurial ecosystems can be expanded to support communities that are under-represented in entrepreneurship.

Design/methodology/approach – Based on an integrative literature review (Torraco, 2005), this paper draws together and synthesises literature from the field of entrepreneurship, higher education studies and under-represented communities in an integrated fashion, leading to the development of a new conceptual model.

Findings – This paper challenges the traditional role of universities in supporting entrepreneurship as focussing mainly on economic growth and new venture creation, and identifies how universities are also positioned to provide greater civic support to entrepreneurial learning amongst under-represented communities. Through a critical analysis of the literature, the conceptual model proposed identifies six key considerations in the expansion of university entrepreneurial ecosystems for under-represented communities.

Practical implications – There are currently 96.6m people at risk of poverty and social exclusion in the EU (OECD, 2017) and an estimated 43.1m Americans (US Census Bureau, 2017). This paper explores how university entrepreneurial ecosystems can be expanded to support minority and disadvantaged communities who are under-represented in terms of entrepreneurial activity.

Originality/value – Given that there is little research regarding how universities might activate inclusive entrepreneurship initiatives amongst under-represented communities, this paper expands existing knowledge as it identifies the key considerations encompassing university-led community collaborative enterprise support.

Keywords Social inclusion, Entrepreneurial education, Public policy, Entrepreneurial ecosystems, Inclusive entrepreneurship, Enterprising behaviour, University–community engagement, Under-represented communities

Paper type Research paper

7.2.2 Contribution 2: Learning Enterprising Behaviour and Disadvantaged Communities – Evidence-based Framework

A small but growing body of academic literature addresses the development of HEI-led inclusive entrepreneurial education and training initiatives for disadvantaged communities (Cooney, 2009; Cooney, 2012b; Kenny and Rossiter, 2018; Haynie and Shaheen, 2011, Shaheen, 2011; Shaheen, 2016). Despite the range of disadvantaged communities addressed within the literature, the predominant focus of HEI-led tailored provision is on supporting the learning of entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow) with a business development or start-up focus for potential or nascent entrepreneurs. Whilst emerging in practice, there is an absence of academic literature for HEIs in supporting disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour (broad). This element of this study addresses this gap in academic knowledge, by extending knowledge of the contribution that HEIs can make to inclusive entrepreneurial education.

Despite the preponderance of models and frameworks within the fields of HEI Community engagement (Holland, 2001; Benneworth, 2013), Entrepreneurial Education (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Maritz and Brown, 2013) and Disadvantaged Communities (Shaheen 2011; 2016) none of these models on their own offer sufficient guidance on the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. The second contribution of this research study is premised on the elaboration of the conceptual framework through primary inquiry. The conceptual framework and its constructs represented a conceptual hypothesis of the crucial factors which influence the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. Fine grained empirical insights from multiple stakeholders incorporating both community and HEI perspectives led to the development of the evidence-based framework presented and discussed in-depth in Chapter Six. The final framework's strength resides in its rigor and

comprehensiveness. It carries theoretic rigor by integrating, for the first-time, recognised constructs from across the fields of HEI Community Engagement; Entrepreneurial Education and Disadvantage Communities in the development of inclusive entrepreneurial education initiatives. Empiric rigor is derived from construct relevance stemming from the empirical data guided by insights from a variety of actors. Comprehensiveness comes from the fact that the framework recognises both HEI and community perspectives in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. The publication of this work is targeted for the entrepreneurship journal 'Industry + Higher Education'.

7.2.3 Contribution 3: Entrepreneurial Education

The main focus in entrepreneurial education literature is within the formal education setting, predominantly higher education (Fayolle, 2013; Nabi et al, 2017; Pittaway and Cope, 2007; Rideout and Gray, 2013) *(cf* Chapter 3). The focus on disadvantaged communities through informal education in this study provides a different perspective from prior work in the entrepreneurial education field. In sync within the broader entrepreneurial education field, prior knowledge on the learning of enterprising behaviour is focused within formal education (Gibb, 2008; 2011), predominantly university settings (Blenker et al, 2015). For the first time, the findings of this study have identified the relevance of the enterprising behaviour concept for disadvantaged communities. The extant literature offers a number of educational frameworks and constructs to inform the design of entrepreneurial education initiatives (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Maritz and Brown, 2013) (*cf* Chapter Three). The literature review and primary analysed data of this study build upon the constructs of Understanding, Teaching

and Learning and Context and additionally includes Capacity Building as a construct in the framework supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. The publication of work related to this contribution is targeted for the entrepreneurial education journal Education + Training.

7.2.4 Contribution 4: Methodological Contribution -HEI Community Engagement

The paucity of studies documenting the perspective of community members in partnership with HEIs is well acknowledged in the academic literature (Escrigas et al, 2014; Birdsall, 2005; Bringle and Hatcher, 2002; Cruz and Giles Jr, 2000 and Sandy and Holland, 2006) (*cf* Chapter Two). Moreover, the study of HEIs with socially excluded and disadvantaged communities is less explored (Benneworth et al, 2013). This study addresses this gap in academic knowledge. The case study research design (*cf* Chapter Five) adopted for this study facilitated a flexible and adaptable approach to gathering primary data (Cavaye, 1996). Through multiple data collection methods facilitated by case study design, this study captures rich data from both the community and HEI stakeholders in the development of HEI community engagement initiatives. In this way, this study makes a novel methodological contribution to the HEI Community Engagement literature. The perspective and insight from disadvantaged communities on the development of HEI Community enterprising behaviour initiatives was facilitated through both semi-structured interview and participant observation. As such, the final framework is inclusive of multiple stakeholders in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. This study makes a novel methodological contribution to the HEI community engagement literature. Moreover, this study makes a methodological contribution by highlighting case-study research design as a flexible

methodology facilitating the inclusion of various stakeholder perspectives. At the time of writing, a paper detailing this contribution is currently in preparation for the International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education.

Each of the four contributions from this study are provided in a summary highlight format in Table 7.1 (overleaf).

Table 7.1 Summary of Research Study Academic Contributions.

Research Field	Contribution
Entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurial Ecosystems	**Gap in Literature:** Identifying the expanded role of university entrepreneurial ecosystems to disadvantaged communities. **Journal:** O'Brien, E., Cooney, T. M., & Blenker, P. (2019). Expanding university entrepreneurial ecosystems to under-represented communities. Journal of Entrepreneurship and Public Policy. Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 384-407. **Contribution:** Conceptual Framework **Importance:** Challenges the traditional role of university's in supporting entrepreneurship and identifies a role for HEIs in entrepreneurial learning through community engagement.
Entrepreneurship: Learning Enterprising Behaviour and Disadvantaged Communities	**Gap in Literature:** No evidence of how HEIs might support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities. **Proposed Target Journal:** Industry and Higher Education/ Journal of Enterprising Communities, People and Places in the Global Economy **Contribution:** Evidence based framework supporting inclusive HEI Community enterprising behaviour initiatives **Importance:** Integration of 3 research fields of community engagement, entrepreneurial education and disadvantaged communities proposing 9 key factors for successful development.
Entrepreneurial Education	**Gap in Literature:** Informal entrepreneurial education in disadvantaged communities under-explored. **Proposed Target Journal:** Education and Training **Contribution:** Expansion of entrepreneurial education frameworks and addition of new constructs from primary data set **Importance:** Novel extension of enterprising behaviour concept for disadvantaged communities
Novel Methodology Higher Education Community Engagement	**Gap in Literature:** Paucity of studies inclusive of perspective of disadvantaged communities in HEI community engagement. Identifies case study as a novel methodology to address this situation **Proposed Target Journal:** Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education **Contribution:** Evidence based framework for development of HEI community engagement initiatives incorporating multiple perspectives including community. **Importance:** Provides equal voice to all stakeholders in development of HEI community engagement initiatives.

7.3 Implications for Stakeholders

In addition to the academic contributions from this study, the findings also have relevance for a number of stakeholders including HEIs, educators and trainers, disadvantaged communities and policy makers as discussed in further depth below and highlighted in Table 7.2.

7.3.1 Higher Education Institutions

There are increasing demands for HEIs to open up to society and demonstrate their societal impact. Community engagement is considered a key precondition for societal impact, which refers to partnerships between university and their external communities to address societal needs (*cf* Chapter 2). This thesis offers several insightful learning points for HEIs in community engagement activity. In considering how HEIs might support disadvantaged communities, HEIs must recognise that communities have a wealth of knowledge and expertise that is valid. The study identifies that many disadvantaged communities are a source of 'untapped' entrepreneurial potential and that there is a gap in entrepreneurial ecosystem support for disadvantaged communities that HEIs can address. This study provides an evidence-based framework for HEIs to address this unmet need. The framework can be considered as a broad set of guidelines that are open to individual interpretation by a HEI based upon their mission, context, locality and region. A participatory and mutually beneficial partnership approach involving all stakeholders underpins the framework. This study identified that fostering the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives may also positively influence a HEIs engagement agenda supporting regional development, local regeneration, widening access and social inclusion.

7.3.2 Educators and Trainers

HEI community engagement is facilitated through top-down, bottom-up or a combination of approaches (Hazelkorn, 2016a). From a bottom-up perspective this study offers several lessons for educators. Entrepreneurial education initiatives outside the formal education setting require several different considerations in their development. Educators involved in community engagement need cognisance of different pedagogical approaches within the community setting and learner profiles. Insight in this regard can be facilitated through the establishment of a steering committee comprised of stakeholders including representatives of disadvantaged communities. In this way, initiatives can be co-created or co-designed. This study found that co-location of enterprising behaviour initiatives between the HEI and community setting was a key consideration for educators in the development of inclusive entrepreneurial training initiatives.

7.3.3 Disadvantaged Communities

HEIs may be difficult to access for many disadvantaged communities and disadvantaged communities may perceive HEIs as 'ivory towers' with few mechanisms to allow for community needs and voices to be heard (Farnell, 2020). Findings from the both the literature and the data analysed within this study indicated that whilst HEI community engagement may not be a panacea for all societal challenges there is a growing demand and desire for HEIs to become more accessible. This offers valuable insight for disadvantaged communities – HEIs are changing and are looking to more proactively engage with communities. As such, this is a pivotal time for disadvantaged communities to utilise and access the extensive knowledge, expertise and resources that

can be useful for disadvantaged communities. HEIs are working in partnership with many local stakeholders to deliver economic and societal benefit, the first point of contact for disadvantaged communities may reside within community engagement offices or support staff.

7.3.4 Policy Makers

This study offers several useful insights for policy makers at a transnational and national level. The need for more inclusive entrepreneurial policy is highlighted by 'The Missing Entrepreneurs' reports published by the OECD (OECD, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2019). The findings from this study further this policy agenda by highlighting the need for tailored and holistic provision for disadvantaged communities. This study recommends that the concept of entrepreneurship and terminology utilised in inclusive entrepreneurial policy should be broader and more nuanced for disadvantaged communities. In particular, the study identified that there is a need within some disadvantaged communities for capacity building in entrepreneurship that may be addressed through supporting the development of enterprising behaviour (broad) as a potential bridge to entrepreneurial behaviour (narrow). From a policy perspective, the study recommends the consideration of an expansion of the role of HEIs within entrepreneurial policy and entrepreneurial ecosystems to include tailored inclusive entrepreneurial support.

The broader societal contribution and social responsibility of higher education have become an increasingly prominent agenda items for Europe, particularly in the light of the European Commission's ambition to show leadership in addressing the UN's 17 Sustainable Development Goals (Timmermans & Katainen, 2019). The European

Commission has committed to prioritising inclusive and connected higher education systems, where tertiary education institutions are no longer ivory towers but *'civic-minded learning communities connected to their communities'* (European Commission, 2017, p. 6). The framework and findings from this study which propose enhanced engagement between HEIs and disadvantaged communities are relevant to four of the UN Sustainable Development Goals including: Quality Engagement; Reduced Inequalities, Sustainable Cities and Communities and Partnership for the Goals. The question of how HEIs can contribute to social and economic recovery in the post-COVID-19 period is likely to be at the top of policy makers' agendas in the years to come and this study offers several useful insights to further enhance the societal impact of HEIs through community engagement.

While policies at a macro level are hugely important and beneficial, it is local based organisations that execute such policies and help to achieve benefit and impact. Findings from this study indicated the significant potential for HEIs to partner with local and regional enterprise support organisations and community-based agencies in the development of inclusive and tailored entrepreneurial education and training. In an Irish context, Ireland has a very supportive environment for entrepreneurship (Department of Jobs, Enterprise and Innovation, 2014), however there is only a modest offering in terms of inclusive entrepreneurship policies and programmes which tend to focus on youth, women, migrants and the unemployed. Some groups such as people with disabilities receive very little tailored support. Collaborative education and training partnerships including HEIs, community-based agencies and local enterprise organisations providing tailored support for disadvantaged communities should be supported to strengthen inclusive entrepreneurship policies in Ireland. In the longer term, enhanced inclusive

entrepreneurial policies may change the circumstances that lead to social disadvantage for disadvantaged communities and support social inclusion.

Table 7.2 Summary of Study Implications for Stakeholders

Stakeholders	Lessons from this Study
Higher Education Institutions	• Communities have a wealth of knowledge and expertise that is as valid as academic knowledge • Many disadvantaged communities are a source of 'untapped' entrepreneurial potential • Disadvantaged communities' value the knowledge and expertise in HEIs but may not know how to engage with them. • Supporting the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities is an unmet need • Highlights a role for HEIs in fostering more inclusive entrepreneurial ecosystems • Provides an evidence-based framework with key elements to support HEIs in how this may be achieved. • Provides an opportunity for HEIs to further embed within their local community
Educators and Trainers	• Community entrepreneurial education initiatives require different pedagogical approaches than within the HEI setting • Co-creation is required which may be facilitated through a steering committee including representatives from disadvantaged communities • Co-location of delivery between community and HEI setting is required.
Disadvantaged Communities	• HEIs are changing and are looking to more proactively engage with communities • HEIs work in partnership with many local stakeholders to deliver economic and societal benefits • HEIs have extensive knowledge, expertise and resources that can be useful for disadvantaged communities
Policy makers	• Expanded role for HEIs in entrepreneurial ecosystems in supporting disadvantaged and under-represented communities • Include concept of Enterprising Behaviour in inclusive entrepreneurship policies • Foster collaborative partnerships between HEIs, Local Enterprise Organisations and Community-based organisations in the development and provision of inclusive, tailored entrepreneurial education and training.

7.4 Limitations of the Research

While highlighting the important research contributions, the study limitations must also be acknowledged. This study is based on a single, qualitative case study that was required to investigate the complex phenomenon in depth. Single case study research designs are often criticised in the literature because of their inability to provide a basis for generalisation of findings (Flyvbjerg, 2006). This criticism often originates in positivist approach to the acquisition of knowledge. If the purpose of generalisation is to arrive at law-like conclusions, then the research design and findings of this study may appear limited. However, given that the methodological orientation of this study favours a naturalistic form of generalisation, the findings should be interpreted as offering the basis for extrapolation that is context sensitive. As noted in Chapter Five, naturalistic generalisation does not place the burden of generalisation on the researcher but on he or she or those who seek to make a generalisation elsewhere (Stake and Trumbull, 1982). The aim of the study was not to conclude the research but rather to contribute to knowledge that develops ideas for further investigations.

Further, while the sample of participants were chosen to be representative across several knowledge areas of the conceptual framework (with equal representation), the researcher acknowledges that a different approach could have facilitated the inclusion of further participants and enhanced the study. Another limitation acknowledged for case study research is its poorly defined data analysis process (Yin, 2014). This limitation was firstly addressed by complementing the literature review undertaken for case study research, with a review of specific methods employed in qualitative research and specific procedures for coding the data collected. Subsequently, the researcher participated in a qualitative analysis course which aided reflection on multiple qualitative data analysis

methods (*cf* Chapter Five). This in-depth analysis was time consuming but assisted in the accurate selection of a data analysis method prior to the design and implementation of the actual process. Participation in the qualitative analysis course was followed by ongoing support from the trainer for the duration of this study which greatly assisted in interpreting study findings.

As noted in Chapter Five, an additional limitation is related to researcher subjectivity, particularly within the qualitative interpretivist approach of this study. The researcher employed a number of approaches in an effort to remove bias from the process including: (1) regular reflexive journaling[6] to question assumptions (see Appendix 9); (2) member checking; (3) peer debriefing; and (4) a detailed description of the data collection and analysis process as an audit trail for the study. Future research may address some of the shortcomings and limitations of this study as discussed in depth in the next section.

7.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Until this study, the academic literature provided little evidence of how HEIs might support disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour. This research study represents a foundation for further work in the integration of theory within higher education studies and inclusive entrepreneurship. Future research may address some of the shortcomings of this study, for example by utilising a larger sample size and a longitudinal approach. There are a number of future research recommendations stemming from the findings of this study:

[6] Reflexive journaling is a process in which the researcher reflects on the outcomes of the study as well as on the research process itself. This practice can help promote self-awareness as well as maintain credibility (Smith, 1999). It also allows the researcher to state any considerations up front regarding the choice in methodology, assumptions and beliefs, or other background information that could have affected the research process (Coe, 2012; Kline, 2008).

- The revelatory case study selected for this research study was at a unique point in the history of the institution. During the time of study, Technological University Dublin was newly constituted and in the process of moving to the last remaining greenfield site in Dublin's north inner city. TU Dublin and its former merged partner institutions (DIT, ITT and ITB) have a long history of community engagement and together with its embedding within a new community ensured that community engagement was a priority of the new university. Future studies could investigate responses to the framework in difference contexts (e.g. from an established university or where community engagement is not a priority). A different context would uncover additional experiences and may further develop constructs.
- This study is embedded within an emerging research field integrating theoretical insight across three disciplinary fields to gain insight on the research phenomenon. As such a single case study was required to understand the complexity of the research phenomenon. Having laid the foundation for this work, future research through cross-case analysis would further enhance the research agenda of socially responsible and engaged higher education (Maassen et al. 2019). The researcher's participation in the TEFCE project has resulted in strong collaboration with three European universities (TU Dresden, University of Twente and University of Rijeka) and could facilitate this analysis. Cross-case analysis (Yin, 2014) from a European perspective could further extend knowledge in this field.
- The Institutional Support construct (Holland, 2001) identified the importance of resourcing and funding in the development and sustainability of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. It is the researcher's objective in the medium term to access funding and lead the development of a HEI Community

engagement enterprising behaviour initiative. A real time study of this process would further develop the research agenda and provide opportunities for new methodological approaches such as Insider Action Research (Futonge and Buckley, 2020).

- The Covid-19 pandemic, which emerged toward the end of this research study when field work was completed presents an opportunity for further research. Covid-19 is changing many aspects of society and one of the most affected is education. In response to the pandemic, education institutions globally were forced to close. As a result, much of the education sector, including universities, have been forced to move online, whereby teaching and learning is undertaken remotely and on digital platforms. This raises an opportunity to further explore the constructs within the framework, particularly Teaching and Learning through an online development lens. Given the education challenges within disadvantaged communities and digital inequalities (Nala, 2020), a future study in this regard would require careful consideration of issues and challenges in this regard.

These recommendations reflect just some of the possible research opportunities that are open to the researcher and others who may wish to pursue future research in this emerging research area.

7.6 Conclusion

In discussing the purpose of higher education, acclaimed academic and President of Ireland, Michael D. Higgins commented:

> *"…universities are also part of our societies. What's the point unless the accumulated knowledge, insight and vision are put at the service of the*

community? With privilege to pursue knowledge comes the civic responsibility to engage and put that knowledge to work in the service of humanity" (Higgins, 2012, p.3).

This perspective has resonance at both a National and International level as the debates around the purpose and role of higher education continue (Goddard et al, 2018). The current study contributes to this debate illustrating how HEIs through collaborative partnership can support disadvantaged communities in the learning of enterprising behaviour. This study offers a number of theoretical and empirical contributions to this important emerging area of research. Conceptualising the foundational elements of HEI community engagement was the mission of Chapter Two. Chapter Three explored the theory of entrepreneurial education through formal and informal education. Chapter Four integrates theoretical constructs from HEI community engagement and entrepreneurial education together in the context of disadvantaged communities which led to the development of the conceptual framework.

The framework and its constructs presented at the end of Chapter Four represented a conceptual hypothesis of how HEIs can support the learning of enterprising behaviour in disadvantaged communities and served as the departure point for primary enquiry. Using a qualitative methodological approach underpinned by a critical realist philosophy (integrating ontological realism with epistemological interpretivism), thematic data analysis presented the findings which addressed the overarching research question as presented in Chapter Six. The findings contributed to the presentation of an evidence-based framework. The final framework presented at the end of Chapter Six illustrates the causal mechanisms deemed critical success factors in the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives. This study identified that HEIs need consideration of

the constructs of: (1) Understanding; (2) Teaching and Learning; (3) Capacity; (4) Tailoring; (5) Partnership; (6) Institutional Support; and (7) Context in the development of inclusive and tailored entrepreneurial education provision. As discussed in this chapter, the current study offers a number of theoretical, methodological, practical and policy contributions at the intersection of HEI community engagement, entrepreneurial education and disadvantaged communities.

This thesis concludes by suggesting that the development of HEI community enterprising behaviour initiatives will enable HEIs to "*reach beyond their walls and connect with communities in ways that are novel, challenging and impactful"* (Goddard, et al., 2018, p5). As acknowledged by DA expert #15: "*I think encouraging enterprising behaviour is hugely relevant within a community like ours …You are going to support people to move themselves to where they want to be – that could have a radical transformative effect in any given community".* The global and national landscape in which HEIs operate is changing dramatically. Now more than ever, there is an urgent need for higher education to play a leading role in strengthening social inclusion. The supportive role that higher education can play in inclusive entrepreneurship identified in this study offers a pathway for HEIs to progress this agenda.

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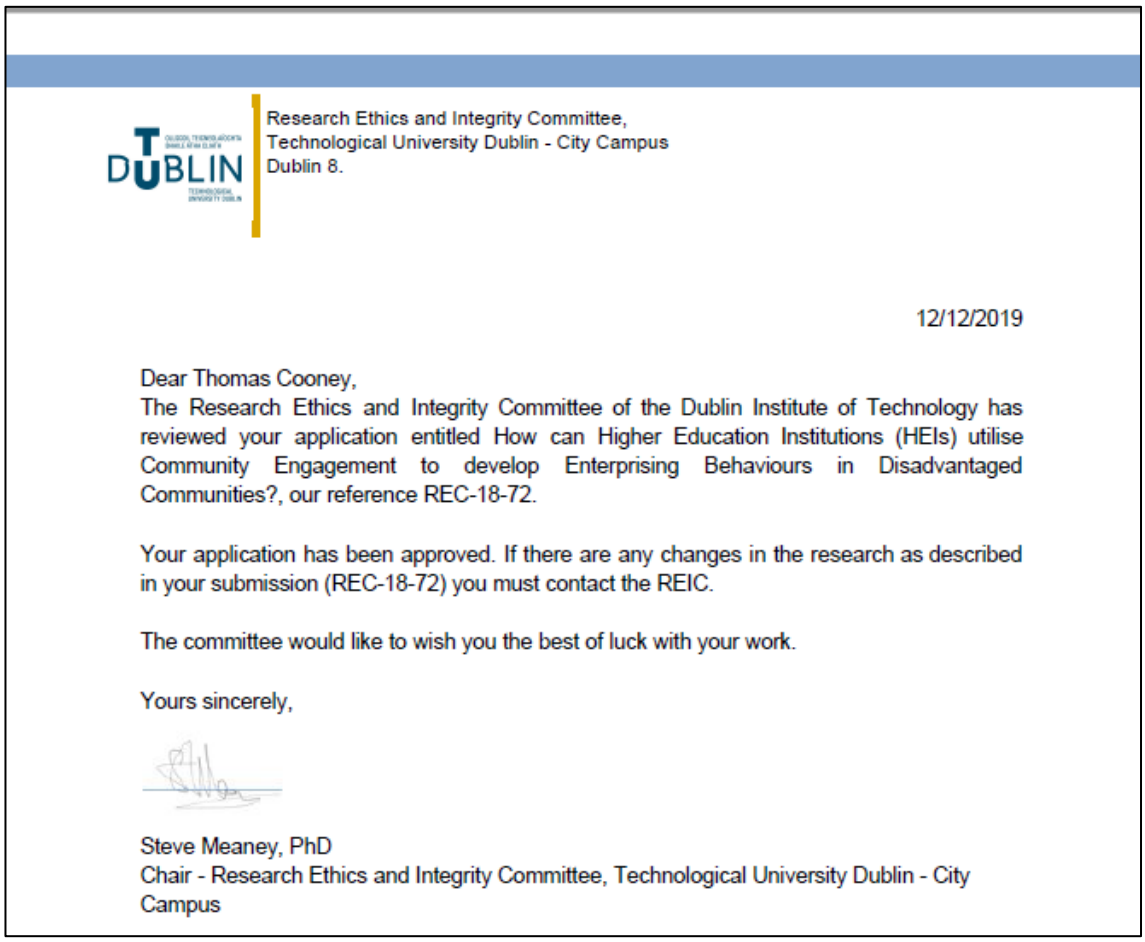
APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Ethical Approval

This is a screenshot of the ethical approval for this study approved by the Research Ethics and Integrity committee, Technological University Dublin.



Research Ethics and Integrity Committee,
Technological University Dublin - City Campus
Dublin 8.

12/12/2019

Dear Thomas Cooney,
The Research Ethics and Integrity Committee of the Dublin Institute of Technology has reviewed your application entitled How can Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) utilise Community Engagement to develop Enterprising Behaviours in Disadvantaged Communities?, our reference REC-18-72.

Your application has been approved. If there are any changes in the research as described in your submission (REC-18-72) you must contact the REIC.

The committee would like to wish you the best of luck with your work.

Yours sincerely,

Steve Meaney, PhD
Chair - Research Ethics and Integrity Committee, Technological University Dublin - City Campus

Appendix 2. Participant Information Sheet

This is the information shared with research participants in advance of interview.

Participant Information Sheet

Purpose of the Study.

This study forms part of a Ph.D. research study being carried out by Emma O'Brien. Emma is based in the College of Business, Technological University Dublin, City Campus, Dublin. The study aims to investigate how universities might engage with local communities and provide inclusive entrepreneurial education and training. It is anticipated that the findings of this study will have impact for both higher education and enterprise policy.

What will the study involve?

This is a case-study analysis of the Technological University Dublin, the new campus at Grangegorman and local communities. The study involves a series of semi-structured interviews with key stakeholders to gain insight into how universities might engage collaboratively with local communities and support enterprising behaviours within disadvantaged and under-represented communities.

Why have you been asked to take part?

You have been asked to take part in this study, because you can provide information and data (interview) that will be of use and guidance to this study. It is anticipated that findings from this study will guide universities in the development of more inclusive entrepreneurial education provision.

What will happen in the interview?

Each interview will be a private one-to-one conversation between the interviewee (you) and the researcher (me). The purpose of the interview is to get your impressions, opinions, comments, and suggestions regarding enterprising behaviour, education and university community engagement. I will make an audio recording of each interview as it takes place, and I may take some notes as the interview progresses. Interviews will be transcribed to help with data analysis. You will be offered the opportunity to review the transcripts of your interview to ensure that they accurately reflect what was said. Taking part is completely voluntary and you have the right to refuse to reply to any question or withdraw your participation and/or data from the research, at any time without consequence.

Will your participation in the study be kept confidential?

Your participation in this research is important to ensure input and feedback from all key stakeholders linked to this project. If you would prefer your information to be provided anonymously, I will ensure that this is respected throughout the study. Any extracts from what you say that are quoted in the study will be entirely anonymous.

What will happen to the information which you give?

Interviews will be recorded using a digital audio-recording device and will be transcribed for record keeping and data analysis. Digital copies will be encrypted and stored on a computer hard drive and backed up to an encrypted external hard drive.

Non-anonymised data in the form of signed consent forms and audio recordings are collected and retained as part of the research process. The data gathered as part of this research study will be securely stored and retained in line with TU Dublin data retention policy and E.U. General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR).

Signed consent forms will be retained in TU Dublin, City Campus (Aungier St) until after the research has been completed. Transcripts of interviews from which all identifying information has been removed will be retained for a further 5 years after this.

Under freedom of information legislation, you are entitled to access the information you have provided at any time

What will happen to the results?

The results of this study will be presented in thesis format and examined by my supervisor, a second marker and the external examiner. It is anticipated that findings from the study will be published at conferences and in research publications.

What are the possible disadvantages of taking part?

I don't envisage any negative consequences for you in taking part in this study. Time commitment maybe a small risk as interviews may take up to one hour of your time.

Who has reviewed this study?

This study has been reviewed and approved by the DIT Ethics Committee.

Any further queries? If you need any further information, you can contact me:

Emma O'Brien

Mobile: ----------

Email: emma.obrien@tudublin.ie

If you agree to take part in the study, please sign the consent form overleaf.

Appendix 3. Consent Form.

This is the standard consent form that was signed by all research participants.

Consent Form

Researcher's Name	Emma O'Brien
Academic Unit	School of Marketing, College of Business, TU Dublin, City Campus
Title of Study	How can Higher Education Institutions utilise Community Engagement to support the Development of Enterprising Behaviour in Disadvantaged Communities?

The following section should be completed by the research participant

	Yes	No
Have you been fully informed of the nature of this study by the researcher? (See participant information sheet attached.)	☐	☐
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions about this research?	☐	☐
Have you received satisfactory answers to all of your questions?	☐	☐
Have your received sufficient information about the potential health and/or safety implications of this research?	☐	☐
Have you been full informed of your ability to withdraw participation and/or data from the research?	☐	☐
Have you been fully informed of what will happen to data generated by your participation in the study and how it will be kept safe?	☐	☐
Do you agree to take part in this study, the results of which may be disseminated in publications, books or conference proceedings?	☐	☐
Have you been informed that this consent form shall be kept securely and in confidence by the researcher?	☐	☐

Name of Participant			
Signature of Participant		**Date**	
Signature of Researcher		**Date**	

Appendix 4. Exemplar Interview Theme Sheet

This is an exemplar theme sheet from the semi-structured interview series. All interview participants were asked the same number of questions. Variation occurred with question 1 and 2 depending on the background and knowledge expertise of the research participants.

Interviewee Name:

Interview Professional experience:

1. You been involved in community engagement initiatives within universities and communities for a number of years, can you tell me about your experience?

- Who are the stakeholders involved?
- What works well in these projects?
- Are there areas for further development?

2. What in your opinion, is good practice in university- community engagement with under-represented and disadvantaged communities?

3. What does 'enterprising behaviour' mean to you?

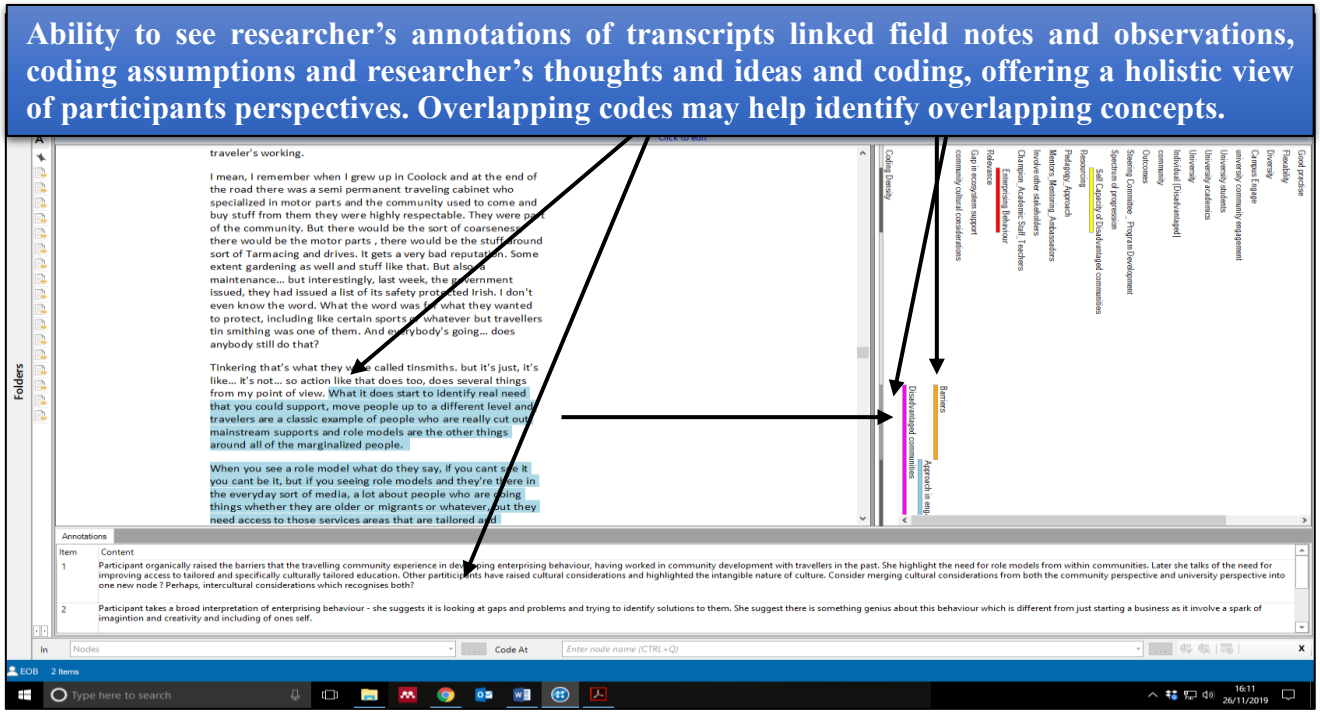
4. How might supporting this behaviour be relevant to disadvantaged and under-represented communities?

5. What might the benefits be to the under-represented community, community or HEI in supporting this type of behaviour?

6. Many universities have significant experience in teaching entrepreneurship and engaging with industry/business in entrepreneurial activity. What do you think universities need to consider in supporting enterprising behaviours within disadvantaged and under-represented communities?

Appendix 5. NVivo Research Database Annotation

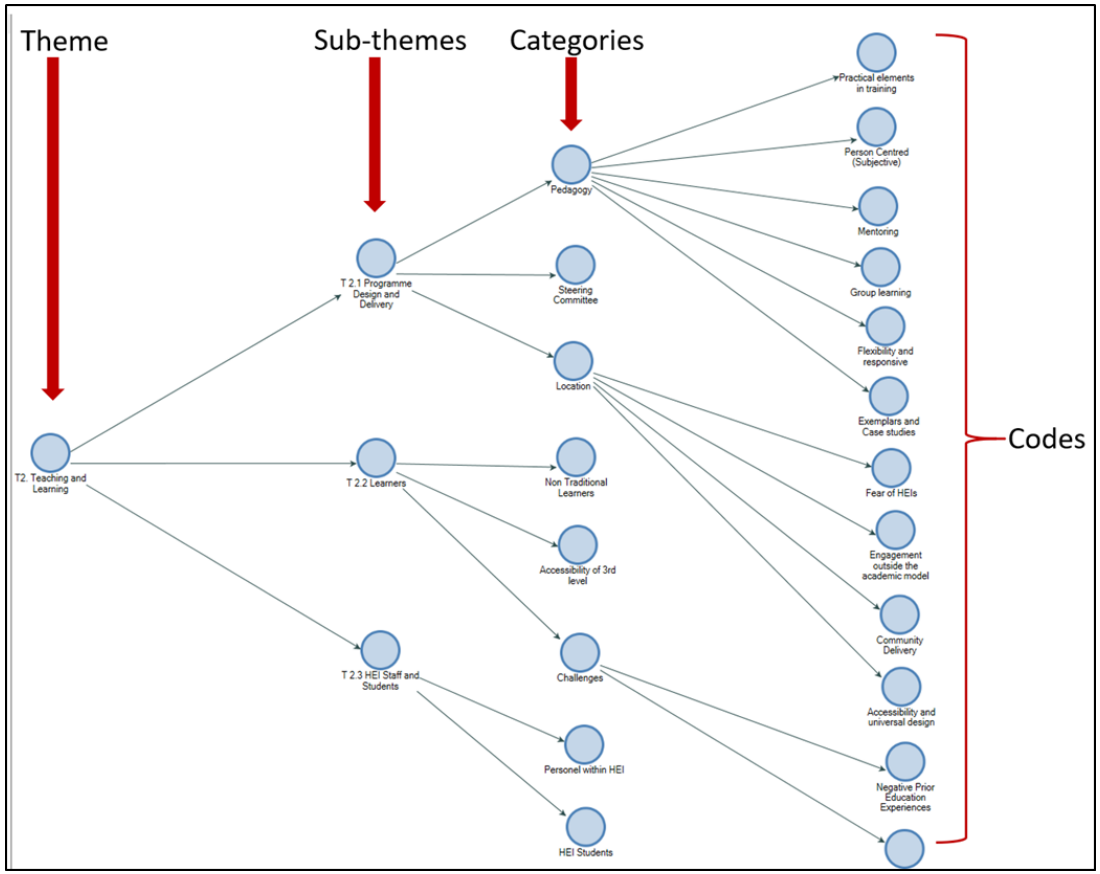
This is an exemplar of the annotation process utilised throughout the research database in NVivo, which assisted in organising during the coding process



Source: NVIVO Research Project File

Appendix 6. Flow from Codes to Categories to Themes

This is an exemplar of the coding process from Theme 2 Teaching and Learning moving from codes, to categories, sub-themes to themes. This visualisation was developed through the NVivo software.



Appendix 7. Publications Arising from this Work

To continuously engage with the wider scholarly community and achieve 'validation as a process' (Leitch et al., 2010), this study published its findings in peer-reviewed journals and books and participated in several academic conferences as part of the PhD journey.

Journal Article

O'Brien, E., Cooney, T. M., & Blenker, P. (2019). Expanding University Entrepreneurial Ecosystems to under-represented Communities. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Public Policy,* Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 384-407

Book Chapters

O'Brien, E. and Cooney, T.M. (2021, forthcoming). HEIs, Minority Communities and Enterprising Behaviour in Cooney, T.M (Ed), *Palgrave Handbook of Minority Entrepreneurship*. London: Palgrave MacMillan

O'Brien, E. (2021. forthcoming). "Pre-Texts in Ireland" in Falconi, J., and Abdusalamova, K. (Eds) in *Pre-Texts International: Literacy, Innovation, Citizenship*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press

O'Brien, E & Cooney, T.M (2019). "How can Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) engender enterprising behaviour from within under-represented communities?", in Visvizi, A., Lytras, M.D., Sarirete, A. (Eds). *Management and Administration of Higher Education Institutions in Times of change*. London: Emerald Publishing: pp 13-29

O' Brien, E (2017). "Turning Institutions Outward" in Trench, B., Murphy, P. and Fahy, D. (Eds). *Little Country, Big Talk – Science Communication in Ireland.* Bedfordshire: Pantaneto

Conference Proceedings

O'Brien, E & Cooney, T.M. (2016). *How can Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) effectively utilise Community Engagement to develop Entrepreneurial Mindsets amongst Disadvantaged Communities?* Paper presented at the Irish Academy of Management Conference, Dublin.

O'Brien, E & Cooney, T.M. (2017). *How can Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) support the development of Entrepreneurial Mindsets in Local Communities*. Paper presented at the ECSB Entrepreneurship Education Conference (3E), Cork.

O'Brien, E. & Cooney, T.M. (2017). *Investigating Contemporary Research Methods in the Exploration of Community Engagement and Entrepreneurship in Higher Education*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Research Methodology for Business and Management Studies, Dublin, Ireland.

O'Brien, E. & Cooney, T.M. (2018). *Moving Outside the Ivory Tower*: *How can Higher Education Institutions support the development of enterprising behaviour in under-represented communities*. Paper presented at the Universal Design and Higher Education in Transformation Congress, Dublin, Ireland.

O'Brien, E. & Cooney, T.M. (2018). *Moving Outside the Ivory Tower*: *How can Higher Education Institutions engender enterprising behaviour from within disadvantaged communities*. Paper presented at the ECSB RENT Conference, Toledo, Spain.

O'Brien, E. & Cooney, T (2019). *Expanding University Entrepreneurial Ecosystems to Under-represented Communities*. Paper presented at the United States Association for Small Business and Entrepreneurship (USASBE) Conference, Florida, USA.

O'Brien E. (2019). *Pretext Experience in Ireland*. Paper presented at the CHCI Public Humanities Conference, Dublin, Ireland.

Reports

O'Brien, E. (2019). *Pretexts in Ireland – Diverse Journeys in Literary Dublin.* Dublin: TU Dublin and Grangegorman Development Agency.

O'Brien, E., Cooney, T.M & Šćukanec Schmidt, N. (2020). *Community Engagement at Technological University Dublin Report on Piloting the TEFCE Toolbox*. Zagreb: Institute for the Development of Education.

Appendix 8. Employability Skills and Discipline Specific Training

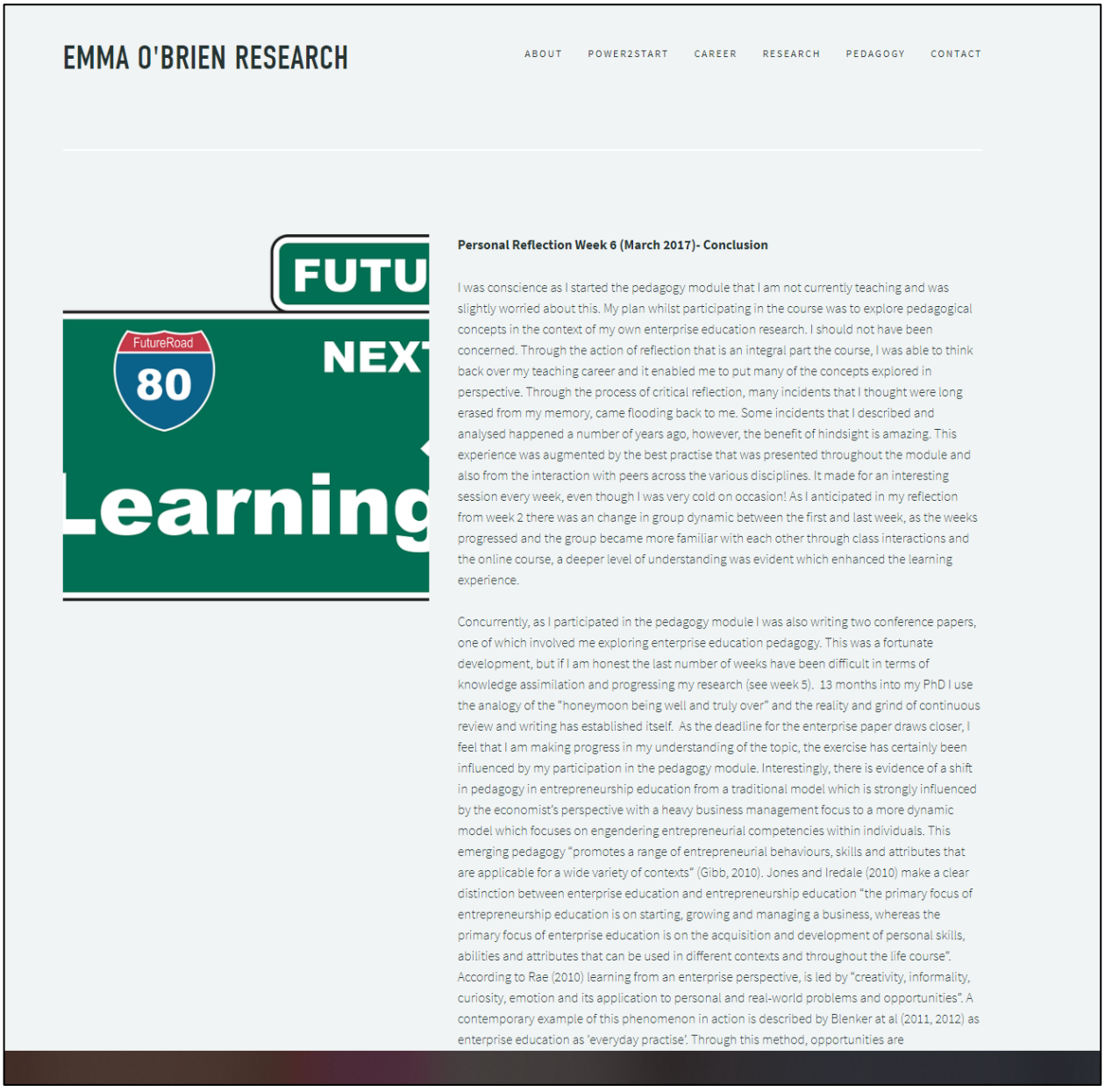
The following screenshot from the Graduate Research School confirms the Employability and Discipline Specific Training modules attended and passed. In total, above the required 40 ECTS credits were attained.

Module Title	Grade	Date Module was undertaken	Institution where the module was taken	No. of ECTS
Teaching On-line	Pass	16-Jan-12	DCU	5
Assessment and Feedback	Pass	16-Jan-12	DCU	5
Enterprise and Entrepreneurial Learnin	Pass	13-Jan-14	DCU	10
Project Management	RPL	11-Oct-16	RPL	5
BSRM 1001 Business Research Metho	Pass	26-Sep-16	DIT	5
GRSO 1010 Introduction to Pedagogy	Pass	23-Jan-17	DIT	5
Case Study Research Methods		23-Jul-17	University of Oslo	10

- LI 501 Teaching Online – Passed – 5 ECTS
- LI 502 Feedback & Assessment Online – Passed – 5 ECTS
- ES540 Enterprise & Entrepreneurial Learning – Passed -10 ECTS
- Prince 2 Project Management – Passed – 5 ECST
- GRSO 1010 Introduction to Pedagogy – Passed – 5 ECTS
- BSRM 1001 Business Research Methods – Passed – 5 ECTS
- Case Study Research Methods – University of Oslo – Passed – 10 ECTS

Appendix 9. Reflexive Journaling

The following screenshot is an exemplar of the reflexive journal kept throughout the research process and learning journey. In this study reflex journaling adopted a blended approach between on and off-line journaling.



EMMA O'BRIEN RESEARCH

ABOUT POWER2START CAREER RESEARCH PEDAGOGY CONTACT

Personal Reflection Week 6 (March 2017)- Conclusion

I was conscience as I started the pedagogy module that I am not currently teaching and was slightly worried about this. My plan whilst participating in the course was to explore pedagogical concepts in the context of my own enterprise education research. I should not have been concerned. Through the action of reflection that is an integral part the course, I was able to think back over my teaching career and it enabled me to put many of the concepts explored in perspective. Through the process of critical reflection, many incidents that I thought were long erased from my memory, came flooding back to me. Some incidents that I described and analysed happened a number of years ago, however, the benefit of hindsight is amazing. This experience was augmented by the best practise that was presented throughout the module and also from the interaction with peers across the various disciplines. It made for an interesting session every week, even though I was very cold on occasion! As I anticipated in my reflection from week 2 there was an change in group dynamic between the first and last week, as the weeks progressed and the group became more familiar with each other through class interactions and the online course, a deeper level of understanding was evident which enhanced the learning experience.

Concurrently, as I participated in the pedagogy module I was also writing two conference papers, one of which involved me exploring enterprise education pedagogy. This was a fortunate development, but if I am honest the last number of weeks have been difficult in terms of knowledge assimilation and progressing my research (see week 5). 13 months into my PhD I use the analogy of the "honeymoon being well and truly over" and the reality and grind of continuous review and writing has established itself. As the deadline for the enterprise paper draws closer, I feel that I am making progress in my understanding of the topic, the exercise has certainly been influenced by my participation in the pedagogy module. Interestingly, there is evidence of a shift in pedagogy in entrepreneurship education from a traditional model which is strongly influenced by the economist's perspective with a heavy business management focus to a more dynamic model which focuses on engendering entrepreneurial competencies within individuals. This emerging pedagogy "promotes a range of entrepreneurial behaviours, skills and attributes that are applicable for a wide variety of contexts" (Gibb, 2010). Jones and Iredale (2010) make a clear distinction between enterprise education and entrepreneurship education "the primary focus of entrepreneurship education is on starting, growing and managing a business, whereas the primary focus of enterprise education is on the acquisition and development of personal skills, abilities and attributes that can be used in different contexts and throughout the life course". According to Rae (2010) learning from an enterprise perspective, is led by "creativity, informality, curiosity, emotion and its application to personal and real-world problems and opportunities". A contemporary example of this phenomenon in action is described by Blenker at al (2011, 2012) as enterprise education as 'everyday practise'. Through this method, opportunities are